Why can't they be more like us?
Baptism and Conversion in Sixteenth-Century Spain.

## Submitted by Carla E. Roland to the University of Exeter as a thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Theology In January 2017

This thesis is available for Library use on the understanding that it is copyrighted material and that no quotation from the thesis may be published without proper acknowledgement.

I certify that all material in this thesis which is not my own work has been identified and that no material has previously been submitted and approved for the award of a degree by this or any other university.
(Signature)



#### Abstract

In Spain, in 1501 the conversion of Muslims to Christianity was thought possible, hence the decreed baptisms; by the end of the century metanoia was deemed impossible. Similarly, religious otherness was thought to be surmountable; yet, it ultimately became indelible or racialized. These construction processes helped to discursively justify the expulsions of Christians, baptized descendants of Muslims, in the years 1609-1614. The importance of language in these justifications was arrived at through the study of referential language in texts, and a trans-Atlantic comparative approach.

The discursive (re)construction and (re)inscription of otherness were traced through a variety of sixteenth-century ecclesial texts. Before these communities came to be named the so-called "moriscos" there were important changes in meaning and usage of other phrases and terms, such as "new Christian" and "newly converted." The referential language was still in transition throughout the century and the processes are easily hidden by the historiographical premature and (over)use of the term "morisco." Moreover, the full transition toward the racialized term "morisco" occurred closer to the eighteenth century and mostly across the Atlantic. The justifications rely on these communities being nonChristian and non-Spanish: suspect and alien. "Morisco" is not often a good metonymy.

The fact that "moriscos" discursively came to be considered non-Spanish and nonChristian did not mean that there was actual discernible or insurmountable otherness. Therefore, a level of difference in the peninsula was posited through the study of referential language related to Amerindians before and after baptism: especially given that Amerindians remained "indios" after baptism—an indication that difference could be overcome in the peninsula. Furthermore, an analysis of the Sistema de Castas where "morisco" was used revealed that the proliferation of categories on both sides of the Atlantic was to prevent these communities from ever reaching the status of old Christian or Spanish.


Dedicated to my family.
With gratitude to family, friends, and colleagues.
En conjunto y para la comunidad.

## Table of Contents

Abstract ..... 2
Table of Contents .....  4
Introduction ..... 5
Chapter 1: Baptism and Conquest ..... 30
1.1 History and Theology ..... 34
1.2 Baptizing Jews and Amerindians ..... 51
1.3 Baptizing Muslim Granadans ..... 89
Chapter 2: Studying Spain and the Granadans ..... 110
2.1 Problematic Ideas of Spain and its People ..... 115
2.2 Traditional approaches ..... 148
2.3 Other approaches ..... 161
2.4 A multivalent strategy ..... 175
Chapter 3: The term "Morisco" ..... 184
3.1 Granada's "Morisco" ..... 192
3.2 The Other: The Trans-Atlantic Morisco. ..... 222
3.3 Beyond Granada and after 1571 ..... 246
3.4 Decrees of Expulsion: 1610-1614 ..... 260
Chapter 4: The Eternal "Morisco" ..... 272
4.1 The Historians' "Morisco" ..... 275
4.2 Application of the approach ..... 288
4.3 Baptism, Conversion, and Expulsion ..... 308
Conclusion ..... 330
Historical. ..... 330
Methodological ..... 333
Discursive ..... 334
Historiographical ..... 339
Other conclusions: ..... 341
Originality ..... 343
Appendix 1: Granadan Primary Documents ..... 346
Appendix 2: Phrase Tallies ..... 402
Bibliography ..... 411

## Introduction

On 2 January 1492, King Ferdinand (1452-1516) and Queen Isabella (1451-1504) took control over the last Muslim-ruled kingdom in the promontory southwest of the Pyrenees, the Nasrid Kingdom of Granada. Although they had been free since 1492 to practice Islam, in 1501, after the first rebellion/war of the Alpujarras, the King and Queen decreed that the Muslims of the kingdoms of Granada and Castile should be baptized; if they were not, then they were to be exiled. In the mid- to late-1520s the same was decreed for Muslims of other kingdoms, including Aragón and Valencia. This theoretically meant that there were no free Muslims left in the peninsula. Though ostensibly a choice, given the reality of threatened exile from their homeland, the baptisms were and have been deemed forced, albeit theologically and technically valid. Over a century later, on 9 April 1609, King Philip III (r. 1598-1621) began the long (yet initially swift) process of ordering and then executing the expulsions of the baptized descendants of Muslims from the entire peninsula, which would officially culminate in 1614. ${ }^{1}$ An often-cited number of persons expelled comes from Henri Lapeyre's analysis: 275,000. ${ }^{2}$

This study focuses on non-monolithic Christian communities which, in the sixteenth century, were wholly discursively constructed as non-Christian and non-Spanish, and historiographically have been constructed as the so-called "moriscos." "Discursively constructed" means that these constructions happened in texts and that the texts did not necessarily reflect or intend to reflect the historical reality of these communities. In short, although they were discursively constructed as non-Christian and non-Spanish, that does not mean these persons were in fact not Christian and Spanish.

Another aim of this study is to elucidate some of the discursive processes used in the historical and historiographical justifications for the expulsions of baptized descendants of Muslims. The narrative and conclusions in this project do not ultimately elucidate "why" members of these communities of Christians were expelled; however, they do uncover the

[^0]${ }^{2}$ Henri Lapeyre, Géographie, 206, 212.
referential language that developed over a century and functioned as discursive justifications of "how" the expulsions were accomplished. "Referential language" refers to language used to "name" and describe the communities of interest, before and after baptism. Historically, this project is about sixteenth-century baptized Muslims and their baptized descendants, and the latter's expulsions from the peninsula at the beginning of the seventeenth century; through 1568-71, attention is given to communities in Granada. Historiographically, this project studies the difference between "moriscos" and "new Christians."

The analytical approach used for this project is inter-disciplinary and multi-faceted, though primarily in the fields of history and historical theology. The broad field of study for this thesis is the history of Spain; in church history, specifically baptism and conversion. It gleans insights from religious, literary, and post-colonial studies (in themselves fields with interdisciplinary approaches). The bookends and the time-frame of concern for this project are 1492 to 1609-14—broadly the sixteenth century—although there are excurses to the late-fourteenth and early-fifteenth centuries, and to later in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.

The geographical and textual boundaries for this project are primarily the promontory region southwest of the Pyrenees, with particular emphasis on the region of the Kingdom of Granada and texts from and about Granada (mostly prior to 1568-71), augmented by texts from and about the Kingdom of Valencia among other places (center and periphery) connected to the emerging Spanish Empire, as well as expulsion-related documents that draw on wider geographical areas. ${ }^{3}$ The geographical and textual boundaries are extended through the trans-Atlantic study of the peoples and texts of New Spain (part of modern-day México), used as a control group or groups, in order to highlight relevant elements regarding the communities under study in the peninsula. Given that the communities in question were initially defined according to their religious otherness and given that there were specific (non-debated) historical moments of mass baptism of Muslims, a theological and historical framework of baptism and conversion is also of import. "Otherness" is used throughout this narrative as designating that which was made into the discursively different or other. The religious otherness of Muslims eventually

[^1]extended to other differences, such as racial or ethnic. In a more common sense, "other" also denotes the binary opposite of "self."

Unearthing how the expulsions were justified discursively occurs primarily at four levels. At the first, historical level, language used to refer to these communities is quantified and chronologically and geographically located. The language is analyzed in a series of primary texts from Granada, and other texts from outside of Granada, including expulsion decrees. Chronologically mapping this terminology then reveals a series of changes in how these communities were named, changes that correlate with geography and chronology. The specific language regarding baptism and conversion in the same texts likewise varies. Given the findings from the quantitative analysis, as well as the historiographical presentation, explored in chapters 2 and 3, the narrative of this thesis minimizes the use of the term "morisco."

The second level is the methodological or analytical. Here, a series of processes that correspond to the identified historical changes in language usage and meaning are documented, described, and named. This includes making qualitative assertions about the data which was analyzed quantitatively (e.g. counted). These processes include a shift from descriptive to nominative language (nominalization), increasing homogenization, and increasing theological reliance on issues of conversion rather than issues with the "forced" context of the baptisms in prior generations. Furthermore, the initial descriptive, hybrid, temporal, and non-static qualities of the language are brought into relief, as is the progressive flattening of the terminology as the century progressed.

By "descriptive" is meant that the language was considered to describe a community, rather than define it; by "hybrid" is meant that language represented something or someone which/who was not one or the other; by "temporal" is meant that it represented a status that could be changed, or still belonged to the descriptive realm; and by "non-static" is meant that it did not have a fixed quality or definition, and had the possibility of shifting in meaning and usage. As seen in these definitions, although enmeshed, at this point the analysis remains at the language level, how words or phrases changed, not yet, the content or meaning, or discursive realm, a different stage.

Analyzing the changes in phraseology, in content and meaning, reveals parallel processes in the discursive realm, the third stratum of interest in this project. At the
discursive level, the changes in language correspond to an effort to discursively other and minoritize the communities of the baptized descendants of Muslims to justify their expulsions as persons who were wholly discursively non-Spanish and non-Christian. This discursive othering was accomplished in several ways, including by (re)inscribing religious otherness after baptism and thus maintaining the original "matrix of difference" (or basis of othering) albeit now an intra- rather than inter-religious difference. The term "(re)inscribe" denotes that the "new" inscription of difference was not the same difference as before. The phrase "matrix of difference" refers to the tripartite religious basis for difference, otherness, which existed in the peninsula for eight centuries, which was reduced to bipartite after 1492/1497, and theoretically and theologically did not exist after the late 1520s. ${ }^{4}$

This (re)inscription, which required the proliferation of nominative (rather than descriptive) categories, at the discursive level prevented the completion of the conversion process, and yet aimed to preserve the validity of the baptisms. If baptism was initially thought to allow for the possibility of a complete change in religion (conversion or metanoia), the creation and use of categories like "new Christian" and later "morisco" made such a change impossible for some in the communities of the newly baptized, since they were denoted by those in power as not having converted. And, since they were discursively constructed as non-Christian and non-Spanish, albeit still subjects of both the Crown and the Church, they were excisable, as alien and suspect.

This movement from possibility to impossibility of conversion also corresponded to a discursive somatization of religious otherness (which has been read historiographically as actual epidermic difference). In the narrative of this thesis, the idea of "somatization" is meant to encompass the process of making the religious otherness indelible, a physical otherness of the body and blood; inheritable, yet not necessarily visually discernible.
"Epidermic" conveys what can specifically be identified in the skin. "Somatization" and "epidermic" specify more than the terms "race" or "ethnicity" may convey to the reader of this narrative. Of import, is to note that the "impossibility of conversion" discourse required the theological dissociation of baptism and conversion from one another. ${ }^{5}$ It is at this point

[^2]that the identified processes with respect to some meta-narratives or models that have been used to study the expulsions of members of these communities-such as the Braudelian "clash of civilizations," or the parallel shift from Maurophilia to Maurophobia analyzed in literary texts-are considered. ${ }^{6}$

The observations and conclusions at the historiographical level are dependent on and interrelated to the other layers. The historical, methodological, and discursive strata highlight a difference between the historical and the historiographical referential language; a difference between the historiographical image-the historians' or eternal "morisco"and the historical reality of various elements of the communities, perhaps both "morisco" and "new Christian." The (over)use of "morisco" takes as fact the discursive and constructed religious and later constructed "somatic" otherness between old and new Christians. ${ }^{7}$ This difference is further homogenized and reified. Therefore, there is an attempt to untangle the historiographical from the historical and discursive to try to approximate the actual usage and meaning of the language and possibly then begin to understand the realities of the lives lived. Or put differently, the historiographical is brought closer to the historical. Again, the focus is on "how" this was done, not "why," for trying to ascertain the "why" does not change the historical fact that many baptized descendants of Muslims were expelled from the peninsula.

Beyond the definitions provided above for some theoretical terms, there are other language choices that inform usage and style in this narrative. From the start, the phrase "baptized descendants of Muslims" is used to name many of the communities of concern in this project. Given the focus on referential language and discursive processes, here follows further elucidation of other choices. Additionally, as part of the methodology, a note about style follows the presentation on language and language choices, particularly the choice of avoiding the use of the term "morisco," as well as the choice of primarily using "baptized" over "converted."

[^3]A challenge exists from the outset regarding the very nature of defining a subject or the process of naming, signifying, or denoting. For once a "subject" is defined it risks being bounded. The specificity of the boundedness of the "subject" category for this thesis is partially challenged through the research done and presented here. Therefore, by defining the subject, a starting point is merely established that will continually be challenged and destabilized as more evidence is presented in this thesis.

At the turn of the sixteenth century the term "moro" was used primarily to mean "Muslim." Thus, "moro" was more narrowly used than the term "morisco," although later some more nuanced, and significant, connotations for "moro" did emerge because of the somatization of religion. Broadly, the etymology of the term "moro" is from the Latin maurus (pl. mauri) relating to the Roman province of Mauretania (North Africa), which, as an ethnic and geographic term, predates Islam. In Greek, it may be related to mauroi ( $\mu \alpha u ̈ \rho o ı$ ) from amauros (á $\mu \alpha u \rho o ́ s, ~ a d j.) ~ " h a r d l y ~ s e e n, ~ d i m ~ f a i n t, " ~ a n d ~ h a s ~ m o d e r n-d a y ~$ associations with "blackness." ${ }^{8}$ The primary use of the term "moro" as "Muslim" is corroborated through the analysis of the texts in Chapter 3. Over the course of time, and beyond the peninsular texts, "moro" (re)gained a greater connection with "blackness" and Africa (not just North Africa or Mauretania) because of the trans-Atlantic, mostly subSaharan, slave trade. ${ }^{9}$ Starting in the fifteenth century there was an increasing conflation of Islam and Africa; Islam and "blackness"; and finally, Islam as "blackness."

[^4]Historiographically, "morisco" is the most widely used bounded homogenized term for naming and studying the baptized descendants of Muslims around the sixteenth century; within this narrow understanding, the 1611 definition of the term, as presented by Sebastián de Covarrubias y Orozco (1539-1613), seems to be appropriate:

MORISCOS. The converted of the Moors to the catholic faith, and if they are catholic, great mercy has God granted them and us also. ${ }^{10}$

Prior to 1501, when baptism was decreed, it can be stated without much difficulty and reification that the term "morisco" was used primarily (if not universally) as the descriptive (adjectival or adverbial) form of the term "moro"11_meaning "of the Muslims" or "Muslim style," etc. The term "morisco" is least problematic when used as a descriptor, and when it more seamlessly translates into English as "Moorish." Subsequently, and beyond the primary concern of this project, there was another use of the term "morisco" outside of the peninsula: "morisco" as related to "moro" (descriptive) in the Philippines. ${ }^{12}$ More relevant, though, was "morisco" as used in the Sistema de Castas. ${ }^{13}$

[^5]There are difficulties inherent in the use of the term "morisco" as a subject matter or field, or as the only term that referred to these communities in the sixteenth century or for the entire peninsula. First, the usage of the term in the sixteenth century was not static; the term underwent changes in meaning and usage as the century progressed. Second, a wholesale use of the term may, in fact, be a (mis)use of metonymy-the use of part to describe or name the whole. ${ }^{14}$ For example, the historians' (over)use of "morisco," may lead to the double exclusion from the narration, historical and historiographical, of the "moriscos" that were not narrated as (or included in) "moriscos." The term may not be the most appropriate for whole communities about which it has been used polemically, apologetically, and historiographically, and may be more appropriately applied only to parts of the communities, at particular times and places. In other words, some baptized descendants of Muslims may not deserve to be appropriately named (or understood) as "moriscos" at all, particularly not at all times and for all places.

Yet although the communities, or parts of them, being studied in this project were eventually denoted historically (although not always), discursively, and historiographically as the "moriscos," and the term "morisco" is a bounded homogenized nominative term (a definition), in this thesis the term is used and understood in a hybrid and unstable or nonstatic manner, much as the nominative term was initially used in the primary texts, albeit bounded by being texts. Thus, for this thesis "morisco" is used in the historical rather than historiographical sense.

Why does this matter? Because understanding how "morisco" came to be used reveals some shifts in usage and meaning as the century progressed. For example, there was a shift from "morisco" as a descriptive term to "morisco" as a nominative term; a shift from a description to a stated indelible and unchanging defining characteristic: a process toward fixidity, which inevitably went through a period of hybridity (of both and neither). This nominalization process does not take away the fact that the term "morisco" as a noun continued to be hybrid and unstable or in flux throughout the sixteenth century.

The stance taken for this project, that "morisco" is in fact historiographically (over)used, leads to the hypothesis that this (over)use has obfuscated certain processes of othering, possibly embedded in the language, which necessitated changes in usage and

[^6]meaning that were integral to the justifications of the expulsions. The hypothesis is that "cristianos nuevos" and "nuevamente convertidos" were changed to "morisco" as part of a series of othering processes. Therefore, in this project, the term "morisco" is not used as a nominative alternative to phrases such as "cristianos nuevos" or "nuevamente convertidos de moros."

Given that there were other terms and phrases used in the sixteenth century, are the histories of the "moriscos" in opposition to, parallel to, or co-terminus with the histories of the "new Christians of the Moors"? Or put differently, were all "new Christians" "moriscos" or vice versa? Although "new Christian" may be closer to "Christian" than "morisco," both "new Christian" and "morisco" were not equal to "Christian," thus creating a "not-quite" (suspect) category of Christians. L. P. Harvey argues that in using "morisco," scholars "are tacitly accepting and approving of the forcible reclassification of this group of Muslims as something other."15 Characterizing the decreed baptisms as a "forcible reclassification"-a way of reclassifying a community and its people-means for L. P. Harvey that it was a way "to impose a new sub-Christian identity." ${ }^{16}$

The argument here is that the othering accomplished by this "reclassification" happened as a process, not as a single moment (baptism), that it was furthered and cemented as the century progressed, and that it is seen in the changes in the way the communities were named. The initial "reclassification" put the communities of Muslims under the control of the Church and thus the Inquisition. The further "reclassification" made them excisable. "New Christian," "newly converted," and "morisco" all served as terms that showed reclassification; in this case, ultimately all were reclassified as "suspect" Christians and "suspect" Spaniards. Yet, although "suspect" and "less than," they were legally under the control of the Church. The terms themselves may have been mechanisms of control and of othering. The terms were also a way of using language to show rupture and change from a prior to a subsequent signifier: "morisco," which as a fixed or static term cannot be "moro" nor "cristiano." As L. P. Harvey states, in the end,

[^7][m]orisco was not ideologically neutral when employed in the sixteenth century, and it can easily smuggle an undesirable bias in[to] our discourse today. ${ }^{17}$

Another language choice in this narrative is the use of "baptized" versus "converted" in the constructed and descriptive phrase "baptized descendants of Muslims." The choice of the term "baptized" over "converted" is a consequence of the assertion made in the primary texts that these communities never truly converted. Such an assertion does not inherently challenge the baptism, even a baptism deemed to have been forced. However, this choice is made even though some of the early phrases used to designate these communities include the term "converted," such as the "nuevamente convertidos de moros" (newly converted of the Moors). It is possible, in part, to choose "baptized" in the phrase, because closer to the original time of initial baptisms the "newly" in "newly converted" was used as a non-static term, meaning that there was still the possibility of no longer being "newly" converted as time passed, including the distance of generations from the moment of the first baptisms. Eventually "newly" was used in a static and nominative manner rather than a descriptive one. Another reason to choose "baptized" is because one of the justifications of the expulsion was the lack of conversion.

The hypothesis offered is that that the "new sub-Christian identity," "new Christian" or later "morisco," was part of the (re)inscription of a prior religious otherness, in order to maintain the prior bi/tripartite matrix of religion; this (re)inscribed otherness cannot completely equal the prior one. ${ }^{18}$ Put differently, although a minority community within Spain could be Spanish and Christian, its discursive minoritization and (re)inscription prevented them from being truly thought of as Spanish or Christian.

Given this hypothesis, it is noted that there are other terms which have functioned similarly to "morisco," historically and historiographically, that are not addressed or analyzed in this project, yet could be studied in similar fashion, for example, the analogous (re)inscription of persons as the so-called "conversos," or baptized descendants of Jews. ${ }^{19}$

[^8]Similarly, the term "mozárabe" (Christians under Muslim rule) is not problematized here. ${ }^{20}$ Also, there is not a full treatment of the term "mudéjar" (Muslims under Christian rule), or the specific reference to females as "morisca." 21

Finally, there is a deliberate use of extensive visual textual aids: of "quotations" for phrases and terms, (parenthesis), singular (plural)—although a preference for the plural— italics, bold, and at times "dual/multiple terms" (ambivalence) with " $/$ " or "()" throughout the text in an effort to demonstrate and highlight, in this limited texual medium, the non-static, imprecise, non-quantity specific (one community or multiple ones), and hybrid nature of the language of concern in this project. This is done to place emphasis on the various terms and phrases used throughout the sixteenth century, how this language shifted in meaning and use as the century progressed, and how the changes in language contributed to the justifications of the expulsions of these communities. It is also done to highlight other terms that are problematic, or non-static, or should be paid attention to as the narrative of this thesis progresses. Language matters. Denoting "expulsions" instead of "expulsion" and "communities" instead of "community" is intentional. For there was not only one expulsion, and there were multiple communities of baptized descendants of Muslims, not just a monolithic one.
substitute category for the erasure of a religious boundary by baptism, that aimed to (re)create or (re)inscribe that boundary, but now as an internal boundary within the Christian community.
${ }^{20}$ Mozárabe is a general term for Christians living under Muslim rule. These Christians are considered to be the ones to have kept the liturgy of the Visigothic period "alive"; that liturgy is termed "Mozarabic." Def. DRAE (2014 edition): mozárabe Del ár. hisp. musta'rabí, gentilicio del ár. clás. musta'rab 'arabizado', infl. por árabe. 1. adj. Dicho de una persona: De la población hispánica que, consentida por el derecho islámico como tributaria, vivió en la España musulmana hasta fines del siglo XI conservando su religión cristiana e incluso su organización eclesiástica y judicial. U.t.c.s. 2. adj. Dicho de una persona: De la población hispánica que emigró a los reinos cristianos del norte, llevando consigo elementos culturales musulmanes. U.t.c.s. 3. adj. Dicho de una persona: De la comunidad mozárabe toledana, que pudo por especial privilegio conservar la vieja liturgia visigótica frente a la romana. U.t.c.s. 4. adj. Perteneciente o relativo a los mozárabes. Rito mozárabe. 5. adj. Perteneciente o relativo al mozárabe (Il lengua). Léxico mozárabe. 6. m. Lengua romance, heredera del latín vulgar visigótico, con elementos del árabe, que hablaban cristianos y musulmanes en la España islámica. Accessed 8 June 2016. http://dle.rae.es/.
${ }^{21}$ Def. DRAE (2014 edition): mudéjar. Del ár. hisp. mudáğǧan, y este del ár. clás. mudağǧan 'domado'. 1. adj. Dicho de una persona: Musulmana, que tenía permitido, a cambio de un tributo, seguir viviendo entre los vencedores cristianos sin mudar de religión. U.t.c.s. 2. adj. Perteneciente o relativo a los mudéjares. 3. adj. Dicho de un estilo arquitectónico: Que floreció en España desde el siglo XIII hasta el XVI, caracterizado por la conservación de elementos del arte cristiano y el empleo de la ornamentación árabe. U.t.c.s. m. 4. adj. Perteneciente o relativo al arte mudéjar. Accessed 10 October 2016. http://dle.rae.es/.

Potentially problematic is the use of mudéjar to refer to Granadan Muslims, since mudéjar is used without nuance with its general definition of a Muslim living under Christian rule and some historians use this as the preferred term in Granada from 1492 until 1501-some of the same problems as with "morisco" may emerge.

Furthermore, the fluidity of the language used here is meant to prevent essentializing and to recover the inevitable hybrid essence of the peninsula and its peoples. The use of these uncommon mechanisms is also meant to show the instability of the meanings at the time and the language and meaning of today. Finally, numbers, equations, and schemas are used; practices not typical in a historical study of texts.

A description of a research project not directly related to this one may be useful here. Israel Burshatin, writing about a person whose sex was ambiguous and who lived at times as a gender that some thought was different from the birth sex, keeps the reader on edge by introducing a degree of instability and caution by alternating pronouns or changing the gender of the name. Burshatin, through the written text reinforces that the subject did not fall within the binaries of sex or gender, then or now. ${ }^{22}$ This practice expands the lenses through which the subject Eleno/a may be studied and broadens the possible understandings of why Elena/o was brought before the Inquisition, ${ }^{23}$ or was seen at times as a threat and at others not.

Concomitantly the language of historiography (secondary works) should at least mirror the language used in the primary texts in most, if not all, its variety, in meaning and use. By noting differences in language other factors come into relief and are then seen as variables, which otherwise would have been erased, not narrated, or invisible. For example, in the topics of interest here, the different regional and chronological variables

[^9]and usages may be deemed significantly relevant and have somewhat parallel, yet different, language usage and changes.

Along with the language and style choices presented, following are other underlying principles for this project. First, a foundational precept is that the level of difference or otherness, religious and/or racial or ethnic, described discursively did not necessarily match the actual difference between the various communities (e.g. old vs. new). Related to this point of view is that whatever level of otherness indeed existed at the turn of the sixteenth century, epidermic or in practices, would be different than at the turn of the seventeenth century.

The second tenet is that by studying Spaniards' "difference" in relation to another group, Amerindians, insight can be gained regarding a theorized difference between groups of Christians in the peninsula. Thus, parallel to the identification of the various processes that aided the othering of these communities-the constructed difference-is the determination of what discernible differences, if any, could be ascertained between old and new Christians. This is done, in part, with the analysis of the language used to refer to Amerindians, as a contemporaneous control group across the Atlantic, religiously, and racially or ethnically starting in the sixteenth century.

Religiously, given that a great number of Amerindians were baptized en masse contemporaneously with peninsular Muslims, the language used before and after baptism for Amerindians is significant and revealing, especially as compared to the language used, before and after baptism, for Muslims. The language of the Sistema de Castas (seventeenth and eighteenth centuries) becomes relevant, especially since it uses the category of "morisco". In the trans-Atlantic lens, the theory is that the initial level of "outward and discernible" difference between Amerindians and Spaniards was greater than the difference between old and new Christians in the peninsula, or earlier between peninsular Muslims and Christians; thus, Spaniards believed that the (purported initial) difference in the peninsula was surmountable. In short, difference, real and constructed, could be approximated, or surmised referentially.

The third principle is that if any epidermic difference between old and new Christians can be reasonably surmised, a clarification is needed regarding what kind of differences existed between old Christians and Muslims at the beginning of the sixteenth century. Before the decreed baptism of Muslims, Muslims and Christians were, in fact,
religiously other to one another. This religious otherness was not a de facto epidermic or racial or ethnic difference, as can be seen, for example, in the anxiety around issues of the possibility of conversion and passing. ${ }^{24}$ After baptism this religious otherness was technically erased. Yet, through the proliferation of categories and the racialization of religion, so called "somatization," full conversion (erasure of religious otherness) was eventually, discursively, deemed impossible. Moreover, the religious otherness that existed before baptism was different than the (re)inscribed and (re)constructed otherness that was established after baptism. The processes of (re)inscription and (re)construction created a new construct which was not equal to the previous religious otherness, whether inter- or intra-. This (re)construction and (re)inscription, along with the proliferation, guaranteed that the new otherness could not be the previous otherness.

The fourth assumption is that the forced baptisms did not make the expulsions inevitable. For example, although the years 1492-1501/1520s and 1609-1614 serve as the general chronological bookends to this project, along with the events that occurred at or around those dates, does not imply, from the onset, that there was a full and direct causal relationship between the deemed forced baptisms and subsequent expulsions. Or put differently, notwithstanding the expulsion of Jews in 1492/1497, after the baptisms of the first quarter of the sixteenth century, the expulsions over a century later were not inevitable and foreordained.

The expulsions, in fact, may have been more closely linked to processes of differentiation, which were part of an ongoing national and imperial Spanish-identity construction in the sixteenth century, rather than religious otherness, perceived or real. In other words, if religion had not been discursively somatized (racialized, made indelible), then the possibility exists that the expulsions may not have happened. Or, if Spain had not been continually "blackened" by other emerging nations and empires, there may not have been the need to somatize religion or excise the groups perceived to be the root of the "blackening," as seen in the section on the discourses of the so-called "Black Legend." 25

The specific meta-narratives or arcs that go from baptisms to expulsions take the expulsions as inevitable (retroactively and anachronistically presumed) and furthermore

[^10]assume that the expulsions had a uniform effect on a complete homogenous group of people; these meta-narratives buy into the dominant discursive justifications of the expulsions promulgated by the State, apologists, and the Church; a narrative (ultimately) perpetuated historiographically, of an (un/in)assimilable community. Although there may indeed have been aspects of a century-long causal relationship between those two events in the texts (imagination/discourse) of the sixteenth and early-seventeenth centuries, there were also other discursive counter-currents and exceptions to this historiographicallyassumed progression. Even if some aspects of such a progression seem to be repeatedly proven, the steps or intermediary processes in those progressions have not been methodically fully identified or discerned: the search for the "how" the expulsions were discursively justified.

The forced baptisms inevitably had a series of repercussions which may or may not be contributing factors to the subsequent expulsions. Yet, leading to the expulsions, over a century later, there was also a series of incidents, unrelated to the decreed baptisms, which justified the expulsions; and, there were intermediary discursive changes and processes that should also be identified as they pertain to the expulsions and their justifications. Parallel to this possible progression were counter-currents and exceptions, often unknown, as well as silent or invisible agents, actors, and events that were not narrated. They are "invisible" to the textual record (or some texts) because they were not narrated (perhaps being the stories of those who passed and/or assimilated). Therefore, throughout the sixteenth century there were many factors that contributed, contra-rested the (perceived) progressive consequences of the decreed baptisms, or co-existed along regional and chronological lines, that may have had some discursive and not necessarily causal relationship to the expulsions and their justifications.

Counter-currents and exceptions are increasingly noted in the historiographical record. In texts, the constitutive effects of the decreed baptisms and causes of the expulsions tend to be more static (even repetitive and tropic); the counter-currents, exceptions and invisible elements tend to represent and exist in the creative space where life and lives, including identities, were continually negotiated, and inevitably changed-
(un)intentionally, noticeably, or unperceptively; this is what conceptually falls within Homi K. Bhabha's notion of hybridity or third space. ${ }^{26}$

The fifth principle is that this is not a project about faith or the actual beliefs of anyone in the peninsula. This thesis is about discourse about religious otherness. Furthermore, it aims to avoid totalizing discourses, for it assumes that Christian communities, including new Christians, were not monolithic; there were different levels of adherence to religious norms (orthodoxy) by members of all communities, whether descendants of Muslims or not: new and old Christians. Of course, not all new Christians were crypto-Muslims or failed in their conversion, and some were just as Christian as any old Christian. Similarly, not all baptized descendants of Muslims were expelled, just as not all baptized descendants were brought before the Inquisition. Issues regarding orthodoxy and reform were not unique to the baptized descendants of Muslims, but affected many groups within Christianity. Similarly, the Inquisition was not solely concerned with one group of people; nor were all so-called "moriscos" solely secretlypracticing Muslims. The written record is often more reliable for the exceptions than for the mundane. ${ }^{27}$ Yet, the written record and the exceptions have often been used as metonymy.

Using the texts under examination, absolute conclusions cannot be reached for all baptized descendants of Muslims. Several sub-groups can be supposed, but often nothing more definite than that. First, there are the unknown numbers of those who are not narrated-those who completely assimilated or were acculturated, who passed regardless of religious practices, and those who were for whatever reason of no interest to the narrator of the texts. Second, there are those who were narrated as exceptions, which include those who legally gained old-Christian status, those who were deemed old Christian because they were baptized prior to the decreed baptisms, those of mixed parentage (old and new), and those who were documented as remaining after the expulsions. Third, there are those who (discursively) did not truly convert, which may be the "moriscos" considered "crypto-Muslims" historiographically.

[^11]The sixth and seventh assumptions or principles of this investigation are that the variables of time and space, or chronology and region, matter, as do demographics. These are important vectors in understanding the multiplicity of communities that have been included under the umbrella of "morisco," and these vectors inform the variety of terms and phrases used, as well as changes in usage and meaning found for different regions and for different timeframes.

For over four centuries until 1492 different Muslim-ruled kingdoms or regions came under Christian control at different times. Furthermore, the relative proportion of Muslims and their Christian descendants to old Christians varied by region. These differences in time and region allowed for varying degrees of inter-connectedness and assimilation, or acculturation, to the hegemonic Christian society. Put differently, if there was otherness, the differences varied regionally and chronologically. In addition to the varied relationships to the society around them (beyond religion, and to emerging "Spanishness"), there were regional differences regarding the communities' relationship to Islam. Accepting regional difference means not imposing the characteristics of one region to another or others, while keeping in mind the interrelationship of regions given the eventual common royal rule, and increasingly centralized state, imperial, and ecclesial bureaucracies.

The regional differences between the different populations of the baptized descendants of Muslims have been variously described. For example, in writing about the geographic realities, differences, and relative population proportions among the various groups, Henri Lapeyre observes:

Castile, where proponents of Islam were drowned in the mass of Christians; in the Kingdom of Valencia where they were very numerous, but submitted for over three hundred years and had the Seigneurs who were their defenders, and finally in Granada where although defeated they retained their leaders and the memory of independence lost only for a century. ${ }^{28}$

A different way of thinking about the regional differences regarding these communities, is in exploring the so-called "morisco problem" which was fixed by the expulsions. This problem is related to regional difference and can be measured depending on the region. For example, the insignificance of the problem in Catalonia; the

[^12]relative ease of the solution in Aragón; the graveness of the crisis in Valencia; the small proportion of this (bifurcated) population in Castile; and the displaced Granadans and the long-standing Castilian community of Muslim descent. ${ }^{29}$

Along different lines, Valencian Muslims were the most religiously distinct community, Aragonese were the most assimilated but also used aljamiado, ${ }^{30}$ Granadans were the most outwardly distinct in practices (dress, food, language), and Castilians were the most estranged from Islam and most indistinguishable from other Castilians. ${ }^{31}$ After the internal displacement of 1571, Granadans (moriscos granadinos) had different manners in dress and language than other baptized descendants of Muslims (moriscos antiguos) or than old Christians in Castile. This functioned differently than the supposed religious otherness of "new Christians" in Valencia (whom had been called mudéjares) from "old Christians." Even the idea of the "morisco problem" can be differently defined depending on region and time-frame.

Demographics also differed by region and timeframe. Therefore, an eighth assumption of this thesis is that even with the data available now and its analysis, it is not possible to make reliable assertions about whole communities. For example, it is known that people were expelled—but how many? It is also known that some were not expelled, but can those be quantified? ${ }^{32}$ And, would combining those who were expelled with those who remained yield the total for the communities? The assumption underlying this last question, is that even if the number of those expelled was known within a reasonable statistical tolerance level, there is still an unknown element of some of those not expelled that remains elusive.

The investigation then turns to the aporias and exceptions. ${ }^{33}$ Yet, information gathered here is hindered by the fact that the same "quality" of data is not found for all

[^13]regions or all time periods, and is restricted to the same few sources and quantitative studies that have been done. ${ }^{34}$ With the data that is available, the population of the peninsula in the thirteenth century is estimated to have been around six million, with one million Muslims included in that total; ${ }^{35}$ there are estimates of fewer than six million for around $1500 .{ }^{36} \mathrm{~J} . \mathrm{H}$. Elliott, however, estimates the population of the peninsula, without Portugal, to have been around 7.5 million. ${ }^{37}$ At the turn of the fifteenth century there were approximately 250,000 Jews of which perhaps as many as 200,000 were baptized. ${ }^{38}$ The number of Jews (non-baptized) may have been 150,000 on the eve of their expulsions in 1492/97. ${ }^{39}$ Yet, little is known about the actual proportion of Christians who were of Jewish descent, including suspect Christians (conversos), those who were assimilated, and those who in 1492/97 became Christians (this time to avoid exile, rather than persecution).

Although regional differences existed, how many of the estimated six million were Muslims around the year 1500 is unknown, though Lapeyre suggests it was less than the one in six above, given that some Muslims left Granada and the peninsula after the fall of the Nasrid Kingdom. On the eve of the expulsions, Lapeyre estimates the population of the peninsula to have been about eight to nine million. ${ }^{40}$ Assessments of the number of persons expelled range from about 275,000 to 1 million persons, ${ }^{41}$ thus between $3.1 \%$ and

[^14]$12.5 \%$ of the population of the entire peninsula ( 7.5 to 8 to 9 million as denominators). ${ }^{42}$ Henri Lapeyre offers the number of 275,000 as the floor and indicates that numbers such as 1 million are fantastical. For comparison, other scholars suggest that somewhere between 50,000 and 300,000 Jews were expelled in $1492 .{ }^{43}$

Given the regional differences in relative proportions of old Christians and new Christians, L. P. Harvey proposes that overall figures are not as important as the more regionally specific figures. ${ }^{44}$ This would mean that the impact of the expulsions varied by region given the differing relationships of the various communities to the old Christian (church and state) hegemony. The region with the largest proportion of baptized descendants of Muslims was the Kingdom of Valencia where it is thought to have been around $25 \%$ of the population. ${ }^{45}$ If that number is accurate, some estimate that 25 to $30 \%$ of the population of the Kingdom of Valencia was expelled. ${ }^{46}$ In Castile, the kingdom with the highest total population, there were perhaps 50,000 baptized descendants of Muslims expelled out of a population of more than 6 million. ${ }^{47}$ Lapeyre indicates that in 1495 Aragón Muslims accounted for $20 \%$ of the population. ${ }^{48}$

[^15]There is similar lack of certainty about how many people and who precisely remained in the peninsula. This is because there were some who sought and gained exemptions, others who gained old-Christian status and were considered old Christians even if they were baptized descendants of Muslims, and still others who did not make ripples in the historical record, perhaps because of acculturation or assimilation, passing, and/or because they were indistinguishable from other persons in the peninsula, regardless of genealogy. ${ }^{49}$ If the population figures that are known and deemed more accurate can be separated from the numbers that support an ideological or biased stance, then these could be combined to create a more robust database, and then some data for previously unknown aporias emerges, which may be indicative of the assimilated or invisible population that was not counted as either old Christian or as new Christian, and was not written about or narrated either. ${ }^{50}$

Another important reason to be aware of regional differences in the numbers of baptized descendants of Muslims is so that conclusions for one region are not automatically assumed for other regions with a different mix of groups. As will be discussed further in Chapter 2, such hasty assumptions have led to the repetition of laundry lists of what all moriscos supposedly practiced. James B. Tueller sets out to demonstrate that there was
a group of Moriscos who lived as other Christians did. The royal assumptions about Moriscos were based on faulty comparisons between Moriscos who were different in geographical, generational, and religious terms. ${ }^{51}$

This thesis toggles between the historical and the theoretical. The historical framework relies on the contours of events, people, and texts-in short, context. The theoretical framework relies on precise use of some technical terms or phrases, as already introduced: "referential language" and its "proliferation," "somatization," "(re)inscription," "bi/tripartite matrix of difference," "nominalization,"

[^16]minoritization," etc., to identify and analyze othering discourses. These othering discourses were ultimately part of the justifications of the expulsions of a community deemed to be of "suspect" Christianity and "suspect Spanishness," or non-Christian and non-Spanish. As presented, specifically, in Section 2.3, the theoretical framework draws from a post-colonial and post-modern toolkit. This requires seeing Granada as a colony, and Muslims and their baptized descendants as the colonized; including seeing baptism as a mechanism of control. These lenses help to challenge homogenizing narratives (who narrates?) and to contest binaries (what is the distance between self and other?).

With this in mind, it may seem paradoxical that the title of this thesis, "Why can't they be more like us?" sets up a binary of us-them, a de facto problematic binary on many levels. It is not a phrase or sentiment found in any document analyzed in this project, but it is a phrase that might resonate with the reader today, as the understandings of difference are investigated and analyzed. Some of the problems in studying any community are embedded in the very language that is used to describe or name communities, as seen with the term "morisco."

The title of this thesis is meant to present an opposition, while also destabilizing the terms of the binary: who were the "they" and who were the "us"? Like the demographic questions presented, did the "us" and "they" encompass entire communities, or were they subsets within communities? Could the "they" and "us" be distinguished from one another, or did they overlap? Can a spectrum be identified between the "us" and "they"? Was movement possible from "they" to and from "us"? This very much has to do with the relationship of the self and the other. Many other permutations of questions may be added here, including whether the terms—and the communities the terms may represent-were in apposition or in opposition to one another? For this last question, much of the historiography tilts toward the stance of opposition.

These questions regarding the us-them binary are related to the curious idea of conversion to or within Christianity of Christians, or put differently, the question of how to convert a Christian to Christianity or how to Christianize Christians. If the above idea of the binary us-them is any indication, this required making some Christians into nonChristians or the wrong kind of Christians (new or suspect), which poses a theological problem with regard to baptism and its relationship to conversion. This then relates to the
idea of difference, including the homogenization of difference, and the construction of otherness. How was the language of difference used to justify the expulsions of members of particular communities? How have such discursive processes not been previously identified or understood? How this misunderstanding led to a reification of language (a sort of problematic feed-back loop)?

Following are four chapters and a Conclusion, Appendices, and Bibliography. In Chapter 1, "Baptism and Conquest," there is a narrative presentation of the history and theology of baptism, as well as a narrative outline of the historical background (time and space) for the communities under question: Muslims and their baptized descendants. Since the baptism of Jews is relevant as a precursor to the baptism of Muslims, and the baptism of Amerindians is a contemporaneous event, space is also given to a general outline of the history of these communities and their baptisms. The very difference in how these three communities are written about and how their histories are presented begins to show some steps in the general (historiographical) construction of otherness. For example, these three communities experienced mass baptisms; yet, the mass baptisms were different in context and in their eventual repercussions to the communities. These very differences then aid in identifying the constructed differences in the peninsula. In introducing the peninsular communities of descendants of Muslims, there is an introduction of the Granadan documents, that are more extensively analyzed in Chapter 3.

The history of the baptism of Amerindians is specifically provided given the transAtlantic methodological approach that uses Amerindians as a control group to understand the construction of baptized descendants of Muslims as other from other Spaniards and other Christians: as non-Spanish and non-Christian. Furthermore, given the multiplicity of expulsions (1492/97, 1571, 1609-14), the completion of othering processes, even to the point of "morisco" not only being a religious category (non-Christian), but a racial or ethnic category (non-Spanish) as seen in México and Perú in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries Sistema de Castas.

Although secondary works regarding the subjects of this thesis are presented throughout the entire narrative, there is a specific historiographical and methodological introduction in Chapter 2, "Studying Spain and the Granadans." In Chapter 2 there is a general overview of the issues related to the study of Spain and its people, broadly, and
more specifically to the study of the baptized descendants of Muslims. This historiographical presentation, or review, is done in such a manner as to begin to identify the layers of obfuscation that require excising to understand the textual changes in the discursive treatment of these communities, which aided the justifications of the expulsions. In the latter part of Chapter 2, a multi-faceted approach and methodology is presented, which includes various tools and strategies employed in the analysis of the data and texts. This methodology includes elements of deconstructionist, post-colonial, and post-modern approaches. Of interest, are the ideas of hybridity and third space, metonymy and trope, and discourse. Identifying these discursive processes is an aim of the analysis of this thesis.

The methodology developed in Chapter 2 is then applied in Chapter 3 "The term 'Morisco'" and Chapter 4. Here, the referential language used to describe and name the communities and its members before and after their baptism is quantified and analyzed. This analysis yields variations in terminology across time and region, and the conclusion that there were processes of differentiation and othering that were reflected in changes in language usage and meaning. Therefore, changes in language are compared to the terminology used with respect to the control group, Amerindians. The completion of processes of othering is hypothesized to proceed outside of Granada, primarily Valencia, exacerbated with the expulsions in 1609-14, and reified and cemented in historiography.

The language used across the Atlantic becomes helpful again, this time by analyzing the use of the term "morisco" in México (and Perú) in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, as it appears in the Sistema de Castas. The usage in New Spain then provides the foundation for the hypothesis that there was a racialist turn in the term "morisco" when it regained not only its original meaning within Spain (its derivation from "moro") but also the original meaning of the term "moro," which predated Islam, thus associating "moro" with Africa and Islam and the trans-Atlantic sub-Saharan slave trade. Put differently, not only did "moros" become "new Christians" and "nuevamente convertidos" and then "moriscos," they then became "moros" again, except that whereas the "moros" in Spain at the end of the fifteenth century were Spanish Muslims, "moros" in the seventeenth century were non-Spanish and there no longer existed any "moriscos," the supposed non-Christians. The data (based on phrases from the Granadan documents) analyzed in Chapter 3 is found in Appendices 1 and 2.

Having analyzed the primary texts and identified the changes in language usage and meaning from Granada's "morisco" to Valencia's "morisco" to México's "morisco," in Chapter 4, "The Eternal 'Morisco," there is a presentation and challenge of the "morisco" of historiography. In this chapter, possible corrective avenues of research and methodologies, are presented, that may ameliorate the long-standing reification of the term "morisco," as well as possible ways of applying this quantitative and qualitative methodology to identify other processes of othering and minoritization. It is asked the patterns of othering identified among the baptized descendants of Muslims useful in understanding other similar processes, or were those patterns of othering unique to the context and time-frame of these specific expulsions?

Finally, in the last section of Chapter 4, there is a return to the subject of baptism introduced in Chapter 1, especially the relationship of baptism to conversion. This not only addresses the so-called problem of the "Christianization of Christians," but posits a problematic dissociation of conversion and baptism from one another, a dissociation that was, if not theologically then, at least ecclesially necessary to justify the expulsions of some Christians from the peninsula.

## Chapter 1: Baptism and Conquest

The aim of this thesis is to identify the referential language used for Muslims and former Muslims and their baptized descendants in a series of primary texts, as well as variations in terminology regionally and chronologically. The identification of language helps to untangle the historical terminology from the historiographical, and thus unearth some processes which helped construct this(ese) community(ies) as other and aided the discursive justifications of the expulsion(s) of communities of Christians from the peninsula at the beginning of the seventeenth century. Before teasing out "how" the expulsions of members of these communities of Christians were discursively justified, this chapter presents the historical and theological context which initially led to a change in referential language. The initial historical context is broadly summarized as the decreed baptism of Muslims in the peninsula in the first quarter of the sixteenth century.

The approach to achieving the objectives of this research project is multi-faceted and inter-disciplinary. In the presentation of the contextual facet, the purpose of this chapter, there is a discussion of the history and theology of baptism, as well as the historical background (time and space) for the communities under question. Section 1.1 presents an overview of the biblical, theological, and historical understanding of baptism broadly in the Western tradition. There follows a presentation of the ecclesial and political context of the centuries surrounding the year 1492, which in Section 1.2 includes the precursor mass baptism of Jews in Spain at the turn of the fifteenth century, as well as the contemporary trans-Atlantic mass baptism of Amerindians in New Spain at the beginning of the sixteenth century. Finally, Section 1.3 describes the mass baptism of the Granadans in the sixteenth century, our primary focus. Although the main lens for this project is Christian, within the historical presentation there are brief expositions of some aspects of the prior religious world of the new Christians: Islam for the Granadans and Pantheism for the Nahuas. The history of the baptism of Amerindians is specifically provided given the trans-Atlantic methodological approach that uses Amerindians as a control group to understand the construction of the baptized descendants of Muslims as other or different from other Spaniards and other Christians.

Religions have functionalist and essentialist aspects (to varying degrees of interpenetration of each of these), among others. ${ }^{52}$ For example, for functionalists religion has a specific role within society and can serve as an ordering principle, such as to articulate the boundaries between the sacred and profane. For essentialists on the other hand, religion provides a set of beliefs which help to explain the world. Religion can also be a tool used in society as a mechanism of control by an institution, such as the Church, or by a particular political power. As regards this project, the State used religion, specifically baptism as a tool to put a series of communities under the control of both the institutional Church and the State. Religion can also be a cultural system that contains elements such as customs that fall outside the parameters of theology and religious traditions. ${ }^{53}$ The most obscure aspect to arrive at in the study of religion is the content and meaning of the actual beliefs of everyday people, an aspect not delved into here. As will be seen, before ascertaining, if this is even possible, the interior belief of particular groups, it would need to be untangled from what these communities have been discursively constructed as being, doing, and believing.

Charles Taylor, in the foreword to Marcel Gauchet's The Disenchantment of the World, gives a good working definition of religion:
...religion is more than a set of beliefs. It is a pattern of practices that gives a certain shape to our social imaginary. Religion-or, as Durkheim liked to put it, the sense of the sacred-is the way we experience or belong to the larger social whole. Explicit religious doctrines offer an understanding of our place in the universe and among other human beings, because they reflect what it is to live in this place. Religion, for Durkheim, was the very basis for society. ${ }^{54}$

[^17]This definition addresses the elements of religion beyond theology (the meaning and mechanism of conversion), and allows for an increased understanding of the historical and discursive contexts in which these communities were baptized en masse; what changes were caused by the baptisms; the benefit to keeping these communities under the control of the State and Church; and how this was done after the initial act of the decreed baptisms. In these areas, there were competing religious, political, and social interests. With the context in hand, the question can be approached of "how" discursive processes were used to justify the expulsions of members from these communities.

Sociologists of religion often note that the social has an impact on the religious and vice versa. For example, Otto Maduro writes that religion
is a situated reality-situated in a specific human context, a concrete and determined geographical space, historical moment, and social milieu." [Furthermore,] each religion's activity is limited by the social context in which it operates. ${ }^{55}$

Although these statements are true, here there is also an interest in the historical moment (point of contact) and context in which persons or groups of different religions, backgrounds and ethnicities meet and how they interact, the hybridity that emerges in that space, as well as aspects which occur in the discursive realm. For example, James Blaine Tuellar would argue that even if all Muslims remained Muslim after baptism, they were still affected by the Christian environment around them; ${ }^{56}$ they were also affected by the ways in which they were constructed and (re)inscribed discursively as other-one real effect of the expulsions.

At the turn of the sixteenth century, religion functioned in Spain and New Spain as an ordering principle not only for the religious life of the faithful (public, ritual, and institutional; private and interior), but also for the sociopolitical context. There were many degrees of interaction between religion and society, including the use of religion for political purposes. The ordering of life in the religious, socio-cultural, and political spheres varied, albeit with points of intersection, for Christians, Muslims, and Nahuas. Likewise, the interior understanding of the world about them, and articulation of the sacred and profane with their corresponding discourses (such as thought patterns or conceptual

[^18]systems) were different for each of these groups—although the Granadans (Muslims) and other Spaniards (Christians) in the peninsula often shared a similar context, shared some common understandings of the physical world about them, and may have shared some thought patterns and conceptual systems.

The act of baptism would naturally be understood differently by Christians, Muslims, and Pantheists (Nahuas), even ones who had lived side by side on the same peninsula. Yet this research project takes a Christian point of view, especially since the discourse was constructed and used by Christians. Yet that constructed discourse, as written on the page, no doubt differs from the lived reality of the subjects narrated. Because there is a reliance on written records, it is posited that the actual identifiable differences need to be distinguished from from the constructed differences in those written records.

The baptism of both Muslims and Nahuas not only entailed a change in religion, but also pushed the boundaries of the organizing principles around which religion and society were organized. These boundaries were pushed differently on both sides of the Atlantic. For example, given the syncretic and pantheistic nature of the religion of the Nahuas, they more easily incorporated the Christian god and saints into their pantheon; yet, this was unacceptable to Christians (and even Muslims) because of their monotheistic orientation. Some Muslim scholars have posited that it was conceivable for an outward appearance of conversion to occur (in this case through the ritual of baptism) without an actual change in interior belief or religion, since one's private life is beyond external control. This has led to the historiographical stance and definition of these communities as solely Muslim or at least crypto-Muslim; this is a problematic view that challenges the theological understanding of baptism. ${ }^{57}$ Christians policed outward practice and interior belief of all the baptized, however difficult the latter was to ascertain. To be clear, what is of interest here is the act of baptism and what it triggers in terms of discourse regarding these communities; the discourse does not need to equal the lived reality or the person's actual belief.

The ensuing theological and historical presentation of baptism and conversion within the Christian tradition underlines that there were non-religious factors, albeit written in the language of religious discourse, that led to the expulsions of Christians, baptized

[^19]descendants of Muslims. The Church did not declare these Christians to be heretical, especially not through the mechanism of a church council, nor were all accused let alone tried by the Inquisition. ${ }^{58}$ Although Christian tradition and theology had always upheld the indelibility of baptism, these particular groups of Christians were ultimately deemed nonChristian, thus breaking with the basic theological understanding that what makes a person a Christian is baptism. As presented in the Introduction and shown in chapters 3 and 4 , this was only possible through the processes of construction of these communities as other, and the dissociation of baptism and conversion from one another. ${ }^{59}$

### 1.1 History and Theology

[Despite] the formal stance of Catholicism against forced baptism, nevertheless, generally, following the Council of Toledo, once performed, all baptisms, whether forced or not, were considered not only valid but irreversible since baptism constituted an indelible sacrament, and consequently to allow converts to Christianity to revert to Judaism would be dishonorable to Christianity. ${ }^{60}$

From its beginnings, Christianity had the imperative to proclaim the gospel of Jesus everywhere and to make disciples of all people. ${ }^{61}$ Notwithstanding this imperative, it is also believed that a person must accept initiation into a faith (in this case through baptism) freely, and that any person is thought to be capable of becoming a Christian. ${ }^{62}$

In the early centuries of Christianity, adults who sought baptism generally spent a lengthy period preparing for their baptism and during that time learned about the Christian faith, practices, and beliefs. Yet there were instances in which baptism was forced or

[^20]decreed on persons and entire populations. These coerced baptisms, and mass baptism without instruction or prior conversion, posed challenges to the church and to other Christians. Yet, forced or coerced baptisms did not diminish the indelibility of baptism, because there was "consent" in the moment of the rite. ${ }^{63}$ With baptisms en masse, a logistical challenge had to do with how to instruct a great number of adults within a very short time-frame, and whether this would be before or after the rite.

In the Christian scriptures and in the early centuries of Christianity, not only individuals but entire households and communities converted to Christianity: this meant that both adults and children were baptized. There are many examples of mass baptism: Franks, Goths, and Saxons, among others, and in Spain, Jews, and Muslims. ${ }^{64}$ Yet, unlike Franks, Goths, Saxons, and even Amerindians, baptized descendants of Muslims in Spain were ultimately discursively deemed un-convertible, incapable of becoming or being true Christians, notwithstanding their baptism. This, in fact, may be solely a constructed narrative, taken as reality in historiography. By making these communities into "nons", movement between Muslim and Christian or a spectrum of religious adherence to either religion cannot be conceived of.

Although there is evidence of infant baptism in the early centuries of Christianity, since those who chose baptism faced the possibility of death, it was mostly adults who sought baptism. After centuries of religious persecution and with the tolerance of Christianity in the early fourth century, the number of adults seeking baptism eventually decreased and infant baptism became the norm. ${ }^{65}$ Nonetheless, the language of the rite of baptism referred to adult baptism. ${ }^{66}$ Since infants and children could not be instructed

[^21]in the faith prior to baptism, with the rise of infant initiation, religious instruction was delayed, and instruction prior to baptism was no longer the norm. ${ }^{67}$ Instead, catechisms emerged to teach those already baptized about the Christian faith, practices, and beliefs; a penitential system, which may be considered a mechanism of control, developed over centuries to monitor and correct belief and practices after baptism, and to reincorporate into community those who had lapsed. Yearly confession did not become a requirement until the Fourth Lateran Council (1215). In direct response to heresy, the first Inquisition, directed by the papacy was created in the thirteenth century. The Inquisition was one mechanism of control within the breadth of penitential tools available to the church. The Spanish Inquisition was not established until 1478. ${ }^{68}$ All of these aspects—instruction, catechism, penitence, etc.-can be seen in the efforts to Christianize the baptized descendants of Muslims and Amerindians.

## The Christian Scriptures ${ }^{69}$

Baptism is the principal act of initiation in Christianity, and for Christians the central story of baptism is that of Jesus by John the Baptist. ${ }^{70}$ This baptism has the two central elements and symbols that have defined baptism ever since: water and the Holy Spirit. Oil can signify the Holy Spirit, but it is also represented by fire and a dove. ${ }^{71}$ Notwithstanding

[^22]the centrality of Jesus' baptism, the remaining references to baptism in the Christian scriptures are not uniform in form or meaning. As Maxwell E. Johnson puts it, the New Testament offers a "rich mosaic of baptismal images." ${ }^{2}$ Since the second century, the most common formula for baptism is a Trinitarian formula for the water ablution preceded or followed by some sort of chrismation. ${ }^{73}$ Yet, in the New Testament there are more references to baptism "in the name of Jesus Christ" or "the Lord Jesus" than to this Trinitarian formula. ${ }^{74}$ This Trinitarian formula, and related theology, was and is antithetical to the monotheism of both Judaism and Islam.

The custom of chrismation or anointing with oil, specifically tied to baptism, and as a symbol for receiving the Holy Spirit, is not literally found in the scriptural descriptions of baptism; there is however an association between "laying on of hands" and the receiving of the gift of the Holy Spirit. ${ }^{75}$ In the fifth century and later, the laying on of hands became connected to bishops and the rite of confirmation, as initiation in the West was increasingly divided into two parts. This was one indication of the church's belief that reception of "the gift of the Holy Spirit" could occur at a time before or after the immersion in water, ${ }^{76}$ rather than as an indispensable part of the water ablution rite. Two other scriptural foundations give meaning to baptism. First, John 3:5, which expresses the idea of rebirth; second, Romans 6 , which expresses the idea of resurrection along with Christ. ${ }^{77}$

[^23]Historically and theologically baptism has not only been thought of as a rite of initiation but also as a rite of conversion or turning. This follows the idea that the baptism of water, as John baptized, was a baptism of repentance, what in the Greek metanoia ( $\mu \varepsilon$ т和ola) indicates a change of mind. ${ }^{78}$ Similar to metanoia is the idea of turning toward God as found in the Greek word epistrephó ( $\varepsilon$ пп। $\sigma \rho \varepsilon \dot{\varepsilon} \varphi \omega$ ) and used to describe the conversion of many, including the gentiles. ${ }^{79}$ Conversion was inherently thought to be possible. Therefore, as seen in the case of the Granadans (and other baptized descendants of Muslims), the frustration lay in the fact that the process and order of conversion or baptism, and vice versa, had been successful (at least discursively) for more than a millennium, and in the sixteenth, these communities, came to be perceived and/or constructed as unable to convert. There were also counter currents to this perceived failure: the baptism was indelible, they now fell under the jurisdiction of the Church, and within the new religion they were othered and minoritized.

The Christian scriptures do not have a list for specific instruction before or after baptism. ${ }^{80}$ Regardless of this void, Jesus' disciples preached and baptized. What being

Messiah, the Christ, to lead us, through his death and resurrection, from the bondage of sin into everlasting life.
"We thank you, Father, for the water of Baptism. In it we are buried with Christ in his death. By it we share in his resurrection. Through it we are reborn by the Holy Spirit. Therefore in joyful obedience to your Son, we bring into his fellowship those who come to him in faith, baptizing them in the Name of the Father, and of the Son, and of the Holy Spirit." BCP, 306-307.
${ }^{78}$ Strong's Concordance $\mu$ عтávoıa (metanoia), word number 3341 with 22 occurrences. In the early centuries of Christianity persons converted from Judaism and various pagan cults: conversion was a possibility for all and baptism was open to all, Jews and non-Jews. In the early church, when Christianity was not legal, baptism meant a turning to Christ and choosing a particular way of life away from other options (Gnosticism, Judaism, philosophy, etc...): choosing Christianity was for some counter-cultural. See Peter Cramer, Baptism and Change, 35.
 Concordance, word number 1994. દ่ாıఠтן $\dot{\varphi} \omega$ is a compound of the preposition $\dot{\varepsilon} \pi ı$ (Strong's Concordance 1909) and verb бтр $\dot{\varphi} \omega$, to turn, change, convert (Strong's Concordance 4762). There are 36 occurrences of $\varepsilon$ ह́ாוबтр́́ $\varphi \omega$ and related words. See also, Acts 3:19, 9:35, 11:21, 15:19, 26:18, 26:20, 28:27; 2 Corinthians 3:16; 1 Thessalonians 1:9.
${ }^{80}$ The writer of the gospel according to Luke states that the book is intended so that the reader "may know the truth concerning the things about which you have been instructed." (Luke 1:4) The idea of instruction is overwhelmingly found first in the ministry of Jesus; there are many stories of him traveling and teaching, even teaching in the synagogues. Some of the instances referring to teaching can be found in the 100+ entries for didasko and didache (Strong's Concordance 1321 and 1322 respectively). Preponderantly these are used to describe Jesus teaching: see Matthew $4: 23,5: 2,7: 29,11: 1,13: 54,21: 23$ and 22:16; Mark 1:21-22, 2:13, 4:1-2, 6:2, 6:6, 6:34, 8:31, 9:31, 10:1; Luke 4:15, 4:31, 5:3, 5:17, 6:6, 11:1, 13:10, 19:47, 20:1, 20:21, 21:37, 23:5; John 6:59, 7:14, 7:28, 7:35; 8:2, 8:20, 8:28, 9:34; 18:20; Acts 1:1. And, secondly, teaching, proclaiming, and preaching became the responsibilities of the apostles after Jesus' ascension. See Acts $4: 2,4: 18,5: 21,5: 25,5: 28,5: 42,11: 26,15: 31,18: 11,18: 25,28: 31 ; 2$ Timothy 4:2; Titus 1:9; Hebrews 6:2; 2 John 1:9-10. Finally, just as Jesus sent the disciples to baptize, he also sent them to
baptized entailed is not entirely clear; the book of the Acts of the Apostles gives a glimpse into the breadth of practice. ${ }^{81}$ Theologically and generally for Christians, baptism and the gift of the Holy Spirit are indelible marks on the person receiving them; similar to circumcision for Jews, the chrismation and laying on of hands serve as a permanent seal or identification of a person as a Christian. Fundamentally then, this was a reason for the discursive dissociation of baptism and conversion from one another, as presented in
Section 4.3 and of import to constructing the baptized descendants of Muslims as nonChristian, despite their baptism. ${ }^{82}$

To summarize, notwithstanding the diversity of practice found in the New
Testament, there are some scriptural elements that began to shape the practice of
instruct: "Go therefore and make disciples of all nations, baptizing them in the name of the Father and of the Son and of the Holy Spirit, and teaching them to obey everything that I have commanded you." Matthew 28:19-20a.
${ }^{81}$ For example, on the day of Pentecost a large crowd was filled with the Holy Spirit and after hearing Peter preach, 3,000 were baptized "and devoted themselves to the apostles' teaching and fellowship, to the breaking of bread and the prayers." See Acts 2:4, 41-42. Teaching in "apostle's teaching" is $\delta \iota \delta a \times \eta$ n (didache) Strong's Concordance 1322. Similarly, when Peter preached at the house of Cornelius "the Holy Spirit fell on all who heard the word," and since the Spirit had come to them Peter "ordered them to be baptized in the name of Jesus Christ." Acts 10:44, 48. See also Acts 11:15. In the same way, Philip preached in the region of Samaria, and those who believed were baptized. Philip baptized in water and in the name of Jesus Christ and at a later time Peter and John laid their hands upon those newly baptized and they received the Holy Spirit (Acts 8:5, 12; Acts 8:12, 14-17). Also, Philip traveling on the road from Jerusalem to Gaza encountered an Ethiopian eunuch; after hearing Philip expound on the scriptures and the good news about Jesus Christ, Philip baptized the eunuch in water (Acts 8:26-38). Whereas Peter on Pentecost and Philip in Samaria preached to crowds, with the eunuch there is a story of personal conversion. Immediately following the narration about the conversion of the Ethiopian there is another pivotal story-the conversion of Paul on the road to Damascus. In Damascus, after Paul himself experienced Jesus, Ananias laid hands on Paul who was then filled with the Holy Spirit and was baptized (Acts 9, especially Acts 9:17-18). After Paul converted and was baptized, he travelled widely and preached about salvation in Jesus. The first account of him baptizing is the baptism of Lydia and her household after "the Lord opened her heart to listen eagerly to what was said by Paul." Acts 16:14-15. We learn that subsequently during Paul's preaching in Corinth many "became believers and were baptized." Acts 18:7-8, Titius Justus, Crispus and his household, as well as other Corinthians.
${ }^{82}$ See Romans 4:11. In the letter to the Ephesians it is described this way, "In [Jesus] you also, when you had heard the word of truth, the gospel of your salvation, and had believed in him, were marked with the seal of the promised Holy Spirit." Ephesians 1:13. The promise is a reference to Joel 2:28-32, Acts 2:14-21; Luke 24:49, John 14:26, Acts 1:4-5. Other references to the Holy Spirit as a seal are Ephesians 4:30; Revelation 7:3-8. Although chrismation directly tied to the act of baptism is not mentioned in the Christian scriptures, the act of sealing can be associated with anointing. Anointing is also related to consecration and requires oil. It identifies or is a sign of choosing someone for a specific role. See for example, the anointing of Aaron: Leviticus 8:12, Psalm 133:2; Anointing of kings: Saul (1 Samuel 10:1), David (1 Samuel 16:13, 2 Samuel 2:4, 5:3), Azael and Jehu (1 Kings 19:15-16); anointing of Elisha as prophet (1 Kings 19:16). In baptism anointing separates a person as a Christian. For Christians, the first to be separated by God through the anointing of the Holy Spirit was Jesus. See Luke 4:18, Acts $4: 27$ and 10:38, Hebrews 1:9. In the second letter to the Corinthians this connection between anointing and baptism is explicitly made: "But it is God who establishes us with you in Christ and has anointed us, by putting his seal on us and giving us his Spirit in our hearts as a first installment." 2 Corinthians 1:21-22.
initiation from the time of the early church. These elements include the water ablution; the invocation of the Holy Spirit; anointing and the laying on of hands; the expectation of repentance or a change of life (conversion); some sort of teaching/preaching/proclaiming that leads to baptism; the baptism of groups, individuals, and entire households; baptism being open to all: to Jews and non-Jews, and equally to men, women, and children. The reason this is important background to the baptism and subsequent expulsions of baptized descendant of Muslims is in the continuities and discontinuities with the theology, practice, and traditions.

## The Western Tradition Broadly

Since the Christian scriptures are neither explicit with respect to any specific instructions as to how to teach, preach, and proclaim, nor about specific knowledge required before baptism, after the first century there appeared a series of liturgical texts that show various local practices. Regardless of the directionality toward uniformity, scholars continue to "emphasize that what was normative in early Christian initiation practice was liturgical diversity and multiple practices." ${ }^{83}$

The two oldest extant sources of such liturgical texts are the Didache or "Teaching of the Twelve Apostles" (late $1^{\text {st }}$-early $2^{\text {nd }}$ c.), ${ }^{84}$ and the Apostolic Tradition ( $2^{\text {nd }}-4^{\text {th }}$ c.)..$^{85}$ These texts reveal some of the early practices and how these were or were not a continuation of the scriptural references. In addition to these there was canon 50 of the Apostolic Constitutions (late $4^{\text {th }}$ c.) which referred to the Trinitarian form and formula for

[^24]baptism. ${ }^{86}$ From the beginning there was angst around form, which will also be seen in the texts from Granada and New Spain, especially around issues of context (decreed baptism), the manner of the ritual (irregularities), and instruction.

The first of the two texts, the Didache, had sixteen chapters, of which chapters 7-10 had to do with baptism, and specified a Trinitarian formula and ablution in flowing water. ${ }^{87}$ In the absence of flowing water, the baptism could be performed with water poured over the head with the Trinitarian formula. Although the Didache provided a brief glimpse into the fasting and prayer that was expected of the baptismal candidate prior to baptism, ${ }^{88}$ it did not mention specific knowledge or instruction required of the person to be baptized.

The second of the two texts, the Apostolic Tradition, had a total of forty-three chapters, of which chapters 15-21 were dedicated to the catechumenate and baptism, and indicated that the period of preparation, or catechumenate, was of three years (17:1). ${ }^{89}$ The baptism was specifically in flowing water (21:2); children, men, and women (21:4-5), alike were baptized; and there was anointing with various oils at various times during the ritual and these oils were consecrated by the bishop (21:6-7). The ablution required the one being baptized to be immersed three times (21:12-18) and to be anointed one final time before going into the church (21:19). Inside the church, the bishop laid hands on those that had been baptized (21:21), then again laid his oiled hands on them and sealed them with oil (21:22-23) one final time. After the baptism in water, anointing, and laying on of hands, the newly baptized shared in the Holy Eucharist for the first time (21:27-40). ${ }^{90}$

[^25]By the fourth century, not only was practice narrowed to triple immersion and the Trinitarian formula, the validity of the rite was based on the Trinitarian formula. ${ }^{91}$ The Council of Arles (314) condemned Donatism and affirmed the Trinitarian practice to determine whether someone was to be re-baptized, as had become the practice in North Africa. ${ }^{92}$ This is to say, re-baptism was for those who were baptized with a non-Trinitarian formula or form, not for lapsed Christians. Lapsed Christians would increasingly be reincorporated into the community through the penitential system. ${ }^{93}$ The extreme form of penance was a period of excommunication, and for the most extreme cases excommunication for life.

With the toleration of Christianity at the beginning of the fourth century came greater definition of the boundaries of Christian faith, practice, and belief. Alongside definitions of orthodoxy were definitions of heresy, or as John B. Henderson puts it, "the broadening of heresy implies a narrowing of orthodoxy."94 The institutional church aimed to maintain right-belief and -practice and did so through various avenues, including through gatherings of bishops and other ecclesiastical authorities (councils and synods), and through the development of a penitential system to monitor belief and practice and bring lapsed Christians back into the fold; the rise of this system signaled the hardening of boundaries of orthodoxy. Analogously, the hardening of boundaries can be seen as the narrowest definition of self with a proliferation of categories for what is not encompassed, meaning the other.

Although a person could only be baptized once, a person could convert more than once; "[a]uthentic baptism could not be repeated. Therefore, rituals and ceremonies of

[^26]pardon and reconciliation had to be developed." ${ }^{95}$ There could be a conversion experience leading to baptism; a dramatic moment or turning point (peripety), ${ }^{96}$ but there was also ample opportunity for an ongoing process of conversion. After baptism, conversion was a process, not a moment; baptism was a beginning, not an end. ${ }^{97}$ Conversion was expected to be a way of life. Although the penitential system, local councils, and ecclesiastical structures were sufficient to monitor and correct the belief and practice, during heretical times (or perceived heresy) mechanisms such as the Inquisition were also implemented.

The above presentation is relevant to Spain and New Spain because of its continuity with the Western tradition; knowing the continuities also reveals the discontinuities. The primary texts of concern for this project, and the many other primary texts discussed in the works dealing with the baptized descendants of Muslims are explicitly dealing with issues of practice and belief, instruction, and penance, etc. It is not surprising then, that the penitential system and other mechanisms of control, such as the Inquisition, were also in use in the peninsula. Whereas these systems functioned with specific categories, apostates or heretics, with the mass baptism of Jews and Muslims a "new category" of Christians was created which necessitated being brought back into the fold-a category of Christians who were thought not to be able to be or who did not want to be Christians (usually referred to as non-Christian Christians, new Christians, subChristian, or suspect Christians). ${ }^{98}$

Old Christians often accused baptized former Jews and Muslims, and baptized Amerindians, and their baptized descendants, of adherence to prior practices, often all these accusations falling under the umbrella of Judaizing. This was at times a discursive strategy (even tropic), rather than a reality, to keep these groups separate. For scholars, accepting these charges as real has to do with maintaining a "neat" tripartite matrix of study, where the defining point was the prior rather than the current religion. Frequently

[^27]the charge found in some documents of the time are recalled (in historical reference order) by some historians as follows:

- Alastair Hamilton quotes with respect to the converts from Judaism: "so although they were baptized, they never abandoned their Jewish rites." ${ }^{99}$
- Francisco de Vitoria (c. 1485-1546) writes with respect to the baptized Granadans: "we see that the Saracens never become Christians; no, indeed, they are as much Moors as ever they were." ${ }^{100}$ A. D. Wright writes, "they barely converted in fact to any true Christian practice." ${ }^{101}$
- Robert Ricard quotes Bernardino de Sahagún (d. 1590) regarding Amerindians: "although the pagans did indeed consent to become Christians and receive baptism, at the bottom of their hearts they never really meant to abandon their old ways, deny their traditions, or renounce their Gods."102

Baptism and Conversion are voluntary, except when not...
In the Christian scriptures, early liturgical texts, council documents, and papal pronouncements, both baptism and conversion were voluntary, and once a person consenting to the rite was baptized, regardless of any coercion toward seeking baptism, the baptism was deemed to be valid. ${ }^{103}$ In a letter written in 591, Pope Gregory I (r. 590604) encouraged baptism/conversion by persuasion and preaching, thus seeking baptism was voluntary; the Fourth Council of Toledo (633) did not allow the forced baptism of Jews in the peninsula; and Pope Calixtus III (r. 1119-1124) in Sicut Judeis reasserted free will in baptism and not force. ${ }^{104}$

These same authorities agreed that Jews, Pagans, and later Muslims fell outside of the jurisdiction of the church, but that lapsed, apostate, or heretic Christians were within the jurisdiction; these distinctions were especially important when baptism was a

[^28]mechanism of control. Thomas Aquinas (1225-1274) believed both that baptism was voluntary and that once a person was a Christian (thus, baptized), any later heresy and apostasy would not be tolerated. ${ }^{105}$ Thomas Aquinas saw "conversion as a [noetic] turning towards God" and he insisted that conversion and re-conversion can only be compelled on lapsed believers. ${ }^{106}$ For Augustine of Hippo (354-430), conversion entailed "the striving for the proper good, a simple good which was epitomized by the ordering of the soul and body toward God." ${ }^{107}$

Notwithstanding the stance that a person should consent to baptism, they considered even a forced baptism valid given consent in the rite and, as Benjamin Ravid writes, not only valid "but also irreversible since baptism constituted an indelible sacrament." ${ }^{108}$ The above position was held alongside the belief that royal rulers had the right to coerce the baptism of subjects as a means to enforce political loyalty and consensus. ${ }^{109}$ This was true for Reccared's (r. 586-601) conversion of his subjects to Catholic Christianity from Arian Christianity in 589; Sisebut's (r. 611/12-621) forced baptism of Jews; ${ }^{110}$ and Charlemagne's forced baptism of the Saxons. ${ }^{111}$ Given the mass baptism of Muslims and Amerindians in the sixteenth century, questions of baptism and conversion were vigorously brought up and discussed; as the century progressed, this was mostly about conversion and not baptism.

[^29]The Dominican Francisco de Vitoria weighed in on whether King Charles I (15001558) had "the right to convert non-Christians to the faith 'by violence and the sword',"112 and argued that the king had this right over his subjects, the Granadans, but not over those who were not subjects of the crown, Amerindians. ${ }^{113}$ For Francisco de Vitoria, although the mass baptisms of the Granadan Muslims and Amerindians were contemporary with one another, the category of peoples and conclusions were different.

Vitoria challenged the authority of the Alexandrian donations to the Spanish monarchs, arguing that the papacy could not automatically exercise rights over non-Christian peoples and the lands over which they rightfully ruled. ${ }^{114}$

For Francisco de Vitoria, forced baptism was problematic, but in the case of the Granadans, Vitoria did not see the threat of exile as forced baptism, because those persons had what he considered to be a choice to accept baptism or exile. ${ }^{115}$

## Baptism and conversion in Spain

There has been a Christian presence in the peninsula since the second century. ${ }^{116}$ Christianity in the peninsula was rooted, historically, in the western traditions of the church, and had Roman, Celtic, and African (north) influences. There was continuity with practices found elsewhere, although it cannot be said that there was uniformity; fluidity, variety, and local practices abounded. ${ }^{117}$ The earliest documented church council in the peninsula, the Council of E/vira (c. 306) produced 81 canons, of which several have to do with the catechumenate, baptism, and confirmation. ${ }^{118}$ From this council it is known that

[^30]there were at least 37 Christian communities at that time, of which 19 were represented at the council. ${ }^{119}$

Unlike the Didache and the Apostolic Tradition, council documents are neither liturgical nor instructional texts. Many of the canons from Elvira addressed how to deal with persons who were baptized and had committed various sins, specifying the penalties, including the length of excommunication. It was stated in the canons that Christians lived alongside pagans, gentiles, and Jews; rules were provided to maintain separation between the communities, and control the practices and interactions of the various groups. Already in the fourth century various peninsular communities were differentiated by religious boundaries, a matrix that would abide in this context.
T. C. Akeley's Christian Initiation in Spain, c. 300-1100 presents the analysis of a series of liturgical texts from the peninsula, all related to what is known as the HispanoVisigothic liturgy (also known as Mozarabic) and various initiation practices. Akeley shows that there were a variety of practices even though council texts insisted on uniformity. ${ }^{120}$ Different from other regions, according to Akeley, in the peninsula baptism and confirmation were not separate rites. ${ }^{121}$ Although triple immersion was the normative practice in the Western church, the peninsular church has a history of single-immersion. ${ }^{122}$

[^31]Also particular to the peninsula was an association between oil and the Holy Spirit, alongside angst around who could consecrate the oil:
[t]he evidence seems clearly to suggest that the Spirit was thought to be transmitted to baptisands with a chrismation immediately after the laver. ${ }^{123}$

Regardless of who did the chrismation, a bishop had to consecrate the oil used for it. Chrismation by a presbyter, without a subsequent laying on of hands by a bishop, still made the baptism sufficient. ${ }^{124}$ The concern regarding the consecration of chrism recurred throughout the peninsula and indicates that "in the Peninsula chrism alone [was] the significant part of baptism." ${ }^{125}$ Starting in the fourth century, as was the case elsewhere, the period of baptismal preparation was greatly reduced over the next centuries to weeks and then days, ${ }^{126}$ until eventually infant baptism became normative. ${ }^{127}$ There is evidence of a post-baptismal period of instruction (catechism). ${ }^{128}$

Beginning in the early fifth century the Visigoths arrived on the peninsula and practiced Arian Christianity until Reccared, in the Third Council of Toledo (589), decreed the conversion of the whole population to catholic Christianity. ${ }^{129}$ Until the end of the sixth

[^32]century there were few instances in which baptism was forced on whole populations. Up to that point, most decrees were meant to control the interactions between groups, not force one group to change their religion. This changed after the conversion of the Visigoths to Roman Christianity.

As Joseph Pérez points out, Jews through the sixth century had participated in all aspects of peninsular society and were indistinguishable from the rest of the population; ${ }^{130}$ yet, with the increased anti-Jewish sentiment and legislation, Jews that remained in the peninsula were progressively restricted to specific occupations and to specific religious practices; an ongoing othering. ${ }^{131}$ In the seventh century the church increasingly enforced the decrees regarding the behavior of the baptized descendants of Jews. The increased policing paralleled the increased desire for uniformity in practice and political consensus across the peninsula, given its relatively recent change to Roman Christianity. ${ }^{132}$ For the church, the immediate consequence of the forced baptism of Jews by Sisebut was the creation of a new category of Christians: suspect Christians. ${ }^{133}$

After the seventh century, Jewish communities continued to exist in the peninsula and throughout Christian realms; Christians increasingly encountered, interacted, and clashed with Muslims, especially on the frontier areas of the Mediterranean, and eastern regions, such as modern-day Turkey and Greece. In the peninsula, a sort of equilibrium persisted for many centuries; Christians and their institutions (ecclesial or royal) did not have to deal with mass baptisms and their consequences again until the end of the fourteenth century-the mass baptism of Jews in the years after 1391, and then the decreed baptism of Muslims in the first decades of the sixteenth century.

## Reform

In the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, a confluence of factors persuaded the church to (re)establish and harden the boundaries of orthodoxy. These factors included

[^33]the mass baptism of Jews, Muslims, and Amerindians, as well as the baptism of their descendants; the desire for ecclesiastical reform; the rise of Protestantism; and the rise of mystical movements (such as the Illuminists or Alumbrados). The Catholic monarchs undertook the reform of the Church, including the religious orders and the secular clergy. The Spanish Inquisition, as a tool of reform and mechanism of control, was established in Seville in 1478 to deal with the baptized former Jews and their baptized descendants. These new Christians were thought to have retained some of their own Jewish religious customs and practice. The Spanish Inquisition was established later in Granada and New Spain as a mechanism of control of the additional groups of the newly baptized.

The need for reform in the Church, in both orthopraxis and orthodoxy, has been historically worked out through ecclesiastical councils. ${ }^{134}$ Information regarding the mass baptism of the Granadan Muslims and Amerindians can be found in documents of the ecclesial gatherings in sixteenth-century Granada and New Spain, and in a more limited manner by understanding the general impact of the Council of Trent. ${ }^{135}$

The repercussions of the Reformations and Counterreformations on the peninsular and trans-Atlantic church were multiple. The Council of Trent mandated the production of a new catechism, breviary, and missal, together called the Tridentine Rite, and this shaped the Roman Catholic Church into the twentieth century. Yet, the concerns of the Roman Catholic Church, in Rome and in other places on the peninsula and throughout the imperial realm, were often of local interest and concern, and were not explicitly mentioned in the Tridentine proceedings or canons. The nascent-Spanish empire was in opposition

[^34]to reforming movements in the European continent and England, yet, the church in Granada and in New Spain was mostly concerned with the Christianization and assimilation of new Christians, a local and specific concern. ${ }^{136}$

James Blaine Tueller rightly points out that the ongoing changes in the church throughout the sixteenth century impacted not only new Christians, but old Christians as well. ${ }^{137}$ Yet, since the impetus for reform narrows the category of orthodoxy and expands the category of heresy, part of the reforming movement in the peninsula was a direct reaction to the mass baptism of Jews after 1391. The overview of their mass baptism thus follows.

### 1.2 Baptizing Jews and Amerindians

## Mass Baptism of the Iberian Jews ${ }^{138}$

Jews have lived in the peninsula since the first century. ${ }^{139}$ For centuries, although this Jewish community was distinct because of its religion, it "did not constitute a distinct ethnic group." 140 Apart from religion, "nothing differentiated Jews from the rest of the peninsula's Hispano-Roman population." ${ }^{141}$ This means that Jews, although religiously other, were not other to Christians in every way. Increasingly, Jews became particularly important and present in urban centers and in royal courts; yet, they were not immune to the ebb and flow of anti-Semitism. Despite periods of persecution and tensions, there

[^35]were Jews who remained as a recognizable religious community (religiously other) in the peninsula until they were expelled in 1492 from Spain and in 1497 from Portugal. Being religiously other did not preclude assimilation or acculturation, and should not be equated with being non-Spanish.

After 711, Jews functioned ably under Muslim rule. Jews served the Umayyad Dynasty which ended in 1031, had success under the rulers of the various taifa kingdoms, but experienced hostility under the north African rule of the Almoravids (1086-1148) and the Almohads (1156-1269). Many Jews left Almohad-controlled lands for the Christiancontrolled kingdoms to the north, and made the transition to Christian living under rule beginning in the eleventh century, as Christian rulers progressively conquered Muslimheld areas of the peninsula. ${ }^{142}$

For centuries, as royal subjects, Jews often served as a bridge community between Christians and Muslims, regardless of the faith of the ruler: "[a]s the former structures of the vanquished Muslim states were dismantled Jews [again] reemerged as a cultural bridge between the two."143 As the territorial boundaries changed, Jews were encouraged to (re)settle in newly conquered areas of the peninsula. ${ }^{144}$ The increased dominion of Christians and the role of Jews in the peninsula can be summarized as follows:

The transformation of Spain to Christian rule was accompanied by a new mixing of cultures, for coexistence of Muslim and Christian peoples ranged along a continuum from active warfare or tense stalemate to mere proximity, from absence of conflict to mutual borrowing. Within this perspective of changing relationships and convivencia, Jews again found a niche as cultural intermediaries as they had in Umayyad Spain. ${ }^{145}$

[^36]Notwithstanding this ability to serve as intermediaries, to serve the royal courts, and even to become an indispensable part of urban life, Jews as royal subjects often had to carefully navigate the environment they lived in, and their status and autonomy were often precarious given that these depended on royal needs and whims. Jonathan Ray writes, that
[p]rior to 1492, Iberian Jews had become practiced in deflecting or minimizing policies that could potentially impinge upon their hard won privileges or status. They exploited the system of overlapping jurisdictions that characterized medieval society, and regularly challenged the authority of their local Jewish governments. ${ }^{146}$

## Eventually, even kings who understood the value of these royal subjects

came to realize that to go on protecting them could cost them too much in terms of their relations with the majority of the people, and that the presence of Jews, despite the advantages it afforded, was more of a liability than an asset. ${ }^{147}$

As was the case in the fifteenth century, the changes in territorial control also coincided with a time of increased religious fervor in the peninsula, the rest of the European continent, and the British Isles. This increased religious fervor included the rise of the mendicant orders (Dominicans and Franciscans) and renewed anti-Jewish sentiment. For example, although not greatly enforced in the peninsula, the Fourth Lateran Council (1215, Canon 68) required Jews and Muslims to wear a distinctive badge and clothing. ${ }^{148}$ Jane S. Gerber sums up this renewed hostility against Jews:

[^37]By the middle of the thirteenth century, these extremely negative influences combined with the setting down of society as the Reconquista neared its successful conclusion. The time was ripe for traditional negative attitudes toward Jews to reassert themselves. Spain's porous borders were breached as she began to share Europe's deeply rooted anti-Jewish patrimony. ${ }^{149}$

A century later the association of Jews with the Black Death (c. 1348) did not aid their status or assuage the violent sentiment against them. ${ }^{150}$

Jews prospered during times of prosperity, but in times of crisis Jews were often blamed for societal decline. ${ }^{151}$ Joseph Pérez summarizes this precarious situation in the following way:

Two prevailing conditions were required for Jews to survive without encountering major problems with the rest of society: a healthy and prosperous economy and a state authority capable of guaranteeing the security of persons and possessions. In other words, the well-being of the Jews required a climate of economic expansion and political stability. ${ }^{152}$

Neither of these two favorable conditions existed in the latter part of the fourteenth century. This is like the discourse against the baptized descendants of Muslims, as seen in the texts analyzed for this thesis.

The shared hostility toward Jews in the peninsula and other areas of Europe was also emblematic of an important shift in the gaze of the peninsula. For centuries, areas under the rule of various Muslim rulers were oriented toward North Africa and the Islamic world (south/east). As Christians increased their hold on the promontory, the gaze shifted to their co-religionists to the European continent and the British Isles. There was a shift

[^38]from contact and influence and a permeable relationship with the south/east to the hardening of that border in exchange for the northern (Christian) border. ${ }^{153}$ With the change in gaze various negative forces coincided that affected Jewish communities in the peninsula and abroad: renewed proselytization, legal restrictions (such as clothing legislation and separate Jewish living quarters), and anti-Jewish sentiment to push Jews to convert to Christianity. ${ }^{154}$ As explained further in Chapter 2, this can be considered part of the dual processes of Occidentalism/Europeanization, and de-semitization and deorientalization proposed by Alain Milhou. ${ }^{155}$

## 1391: Seville

Notwithstanding the centuries' long pressures on these communities, prior to 1391 there had been an unremarkable and insignificant number of Jews seeking baptism. ${ }^{156}$ In the late-fourteenth century there was an increase in systematic/unrelenting anti-Jewish

[^39]sentiment in the peninsula and the rate of Jews seeking baptism accelerated. The peninsular Jewish community was changed forever. ${ }^{157}$ The anti-Jewish sentiment included riots in Seville where Jews were attacked and murdered in 1391: synagogues defiled, prayer books confiscated, and hateful sermons preached. ${ }^{158}$ Baptism became an alternative to death. Jane S. Gerber notes, " $[t]$ he religious fervor propelling the persecutors was unmistakable; converts were spared without exception." ${ }^{159}$ As seen before, because these baptisms were sought as a means to preserve life, they have generally been labeled as forced. ${ }^{160}$ Yet, not all baptisms were due to the immediate threat of violence or death, ${ }^{161}$ and baptisms continued through 1415. ${ }^{162}$ "[A]s many as 50,000 more Jews joined the Christian fold by 1415."163 Overall, perhaps 100,000 were baptized, 100,000 were murdered, and another 100,000 survived as Jews by hiding or fleeing. ${ }^{164}$

This mass baptism of Jews had religious, legal, and communal repercussions that posed challenges for the Crown, Church, former co-religionists, and new co-religionists. Eventually these challenges were crystalized in an anti-convert sentiment, purity of blood statutes, the creation of the Spanish Inquisition, and ultimately the expulsion of remaining Jews in 1492/1497. With these baptisms, especially of adults, naturally came questions of how to deal with the newly baptized and the changes in the status of such a large number

[^40]of persons. ${ }^{165}$ As stated before, with the mass baptisms "a new category in the religious geography of the peninsula was created-converts or new Christians." ${ }^{166}$

It is hard to discern the relative proportion of Jews and baptized former Jews immediately after 1391; it was difficult to sever ties between the baptized (former Jews and their baptized descendants) and Jews. Because of this there were three communities with ties to Judaism: Jews, Christians (new Christians or conversos), and Christians (cryptoJews or marranos). ${ }^{167}$ The various communities Jane S. Gerber described as
those who openly continued to practice Judaism, those who had converted (conversos) and remained so, and those who privately renounced their forced baptism, secretly maintaining their adherence to Judaism. Somehow, either through hiding or flight, the faithful Jews had remained a recognizable community, even though they were impoverished, defeated, and severely traumatized. ${ }^{168}$

Although there were religious distinctions (otherness) between these various groups, relationships among people blurred these distinctions, ${ }^{169}$ and, at least discursively, these fueled the mistrust toward all the baptized (with Jewish ties), regardless of whether they were faithful practitioners of Christianity or not. This is an example of what in this thesis is called the beginnings of the somatizing of religion.

Given that there were various Christian communities with ties to Judaism, there was confusion regarding the status of Christians of Jewish descent both in the Jewish and Christian communities. This was exacerbated both by the fact or the perception that some of the baptized (former Jews) were continuing to practice Judaism in secret (crypto-

[^41]Jews), ${ }^{170}$ and by resentment (often a trope). Christians of Jewish descent did not abandon their courtly employment, positions traditionally held by Jews, but now gained access to other professions and positions held by other Christians. ${ }^{171}$ This increased access to different kinds of employment eventually caused a backlash from the Christian community of non-Jewish heritage. Kevin Ingram summarizes it this way:

Those Jews who converted to Christianity in the wake of the 1391 pogrom found themselves in an advantageous position vis-à-vis both the Jewish and old-Christian communities. As new Christians they were no longer subject to the restrictions that had hampered Jewish merchants and professionals. ${ }^{172}$

Yet, as Joseph Pérez argues, this success could only continue if there was "a climate of economic expansion and political stability." ${ }^{173}$

The mass baptisms of 1391-1415 had historical consequences for the new Christian communities and their baptized descendants. Yet, the consequences of the mass baptisms were not only enactments by the state and the church, but often were fueled by the resentment, real and discursive, of the broader populace. Parts of medieval peninsular society was ordered around religious affiliation and having many people change religion necessitated the creation of a new boundary. In short, the removal of a religious boundary led to the (re)inscription of the border by the creation of a new boundary or category: a discursive process. ${ }^{174}$ And as has been said before, this new category of "new Christian" was a suspect Christian.
B. Netanyahu and Joseph Pérez argue that the majority of those that were baptized

[^42]managed complete assimilation into the rest of Christian society and were able to erase what most of their new coreligionists considered to be shameful origins. ${ }^{175}$

Their new coreligionists did much to deny a Christian status in society to this community of the baptized (at the very least discursively). Whereas there is a presumed progression from new to old, additional categories continued to emerge: a proliferation and pattern that was repeated for Granadans and

Amerindians, as analyzed in Chapter 3. ${ }^{176}$ Joseph Pérez puts it this way:
The converts' tragic destiny was that of a category of people wanting to assimilate but ultimately rejected by the 'old Christians.' Converts, for [sic] new Christians, remained Jews despite baptism, complicated by the fact that as Christians they could have responsibilities, honors, and offices previously denied by their former religion. ${ }^{177}$

One way such rejection of converts occurred was by excluding new Christians from certain jobs.

## 1449 - Toledo: purity of blood statutes

Jews who were baptized between 1391 and 1415 may have experienced a decrease in violence; and yet negative sentiment, ${ }^{178}$ real or discursive, toward these new Christians increased as the decades progressed. In the middle of the fifteenth century there was a time of economic and political crisis and thus legislation was enacted against these communities of new Christians. Similar ecclesial ones followed these statutes. ${ }^{179}$ In the case of Toledo a new tax was instituted and political rebellion ensued. As Joseph Pérez states "[f]iscal problems again exacerbated anti-Jewish sentiments." ${ }^{180}$

These anti-Jewish and anti-convert sentiments were then "used as anti-convert propaganda and resulted in the promulgation of a discriminatory legal sentence" ${ }^{181}$ against

[^43]baptized descendants of Jews, or baptized former Jews. ${ }^{182}$ One legal sentence, the Sentencia Estatuto, was promulgated by the Mayor of Toledo, Pedro Sarmiento, on 5 June 1449. ${ }^{183}$ Kenneth Baxter Wolf summarizes the need for the statute in the following manner:

The underlying issue seems to have been fears on the part of the 'old Christian' ruling class in Toledo that their power was threatened by the rise of the 'new Christians.' ${ }^{184}$

Pope Nicholas V (r. 1447-1455) condemned the edict, in a bull dated 24 September 1449, "as contrary to the unity of the Christian people." ${ }^{185}$ Although others also condemned this promulgation, the sentiment of the Sentencia was upheld in many other statutes. The Sentencia refers not only to Judaizing practices but also to Jewish lineage:

Therefore we find that we ought to declare and do declare that all the said conversos descended from the perverse line of the Jews, in whatever situation they may be..., be held as incapable and unworthy to hold public or private office in the said city of Toledo and in its lands, by means of which they would be able to hold lordship over Old Christians believing in the holy Catholic faith of Our Lord Jesus Christ and cause damage, injury, and to be incapable and unworthy of giving testimony and faith as public notaries or as witnesses... ${ }^{186}$

As the Sentencia shows, increasingly "Jewish ancestry or 'race' rather than professed religious belief defined who was a Jew." ${ }^{187}$ Joseph Pérez states it differently: "[f]or the masses, all converts were false Christians"; a category of suspect Christians. ${ }^{188}$ Baptized former Jews and their baptized descendants were perceived as having a primary loyalty to the Jewish community and this led to production of "new theories regarding the indelible nature of their Jewish ancestry" seen through "complaints regarding the

[^44]persistent Jewishness of the Conversos." ${ }^{189}$ As supported in the analysis of the texts regarding Muslims and their baptized descendants, the Jewish precursor helps to show the beginning of increased discursive distinctions between old and new Christians.

The conversos were now isolated as a new class, neither Jewish nor Christian, that was unassimilable and could not be redeemed. Enigmatically, the restrictive laws became increasingly complex as the actual Jewishness of the conversos became more remote, even mythical. ${ }^{190}$

Jane S. Gerber's assertion of the "mythical Jewishness" hints at the constructed nature of difference between so-called conversos and old Christians. Whether seen as frustration with actual conversion or as discursive constructed difference, these issues (re)surfaced with respect to baptized descendants of Muslims, and as introduced in Chapter 2 and analyzed in Chapter 4, become entangled with historiographical biases. This discourse was also found in texts, categorized as from a Jewish or Muslim perspective, from within the community, a different universe of texts from the ones analyzed for this project. By this is meant that there was a sub-set of persons from the communities that although baptized remained Jewish, or later Muslim. Yet this was not the fact for all baptized descendants of Jews, or later Christian descendants of Muslims.

Some from within the Jewish community also believed that the baptisms of 1391 and those of 1492/97 were not valid. Jonathan Ray writes,

Jewish authors who had passed through conversion in Spain or Portugal before escaping the peninsula helped to popularize the image of the Converso as a defiantly pious Jew. For these writers, the persistence of Jewish practice and identity among the Conversos was seen not as heresy or proof of the intractable nature of the Jews, but as a badge of honor. The Spanish exile Solomon ibn Verga was among those who converted under duress in 1497. In his chronicle on Iberian Jewry, he boasted: "In three cases water has flowed in vain: the water of the river to the sea, the water in wine and the water at a Jew's baptism." ${ }^{191}$

To address the perceived deficiencies in these Christian communities, ties between Jews, baptized former Jews, and their baptized descendants were increasingly severed to encourage the baptized communities "succeed" in their Christianization and assimilation. Whereas Jews had often lived in distinct communities, these communities were not closed

[^45]to those who were baptized or other Christians. By 1480 this would change with the requirement from the Catholic Monarchs that all Jews live in juderías (Jewish quarters or ghettos). ${ }^{192}$ Nevertheless,
[b]y the end of the fifteenth century there was ample evidence of the successful professional, social and cultural assimilation of the conversos into old Christian society despite the growing impact of the purity of blood statutes. ${ }^{193}$

## 1480 - Seville: establishment of the Spanish Inquisition

Notwithstanding the progress made in the faith by baptized former Jews and their baptized descendants, new laws and mechanisms of control were created to police these communities and maintain them as separate and distinct communities: this (re)inscribed the previous religious boundary through the proliferation of categories along a different religious spectrum. Put differently, the religious otherness of Jews from Christians was (re)inscribed as the religious difference between new Christians (conversos) and old Christians.

For decades new Christians were policed by local ecclesiastical authorities and courts; in 1478 Ferdinand and Isabelle asked Pope Sixtus IV (r. 1471-1484) ${ }^{194}$ to establish the Inquisition in the peninsula under their own royal control. ${ }^{195}$ Consequently, the first inquisitors were named in Seville in 1480 to "root out Judaism from the new-Christian community." 196 One of the primary things accomplished by the Inquisition was to further sever the ties between practicing Jews and Christians of Jewish ancestry. ${ }^{197}$ For those brought up before the Inquisition, punishment included death, long-term confinement,

[^46]confiscation of property; and for those who ultimately confessed to the sins for which they were accused, the humiliation of wearing a sanbenito. ${ }^{198}$

The promulgation of statutes regarding the baptized descendants of Jews assumed that a baptized person was capable of full conversion and complete indoctrination: full Christianization. Thus, religious otherness was still surmountable. Joseph Pérez summarizes it in this way:

Indeed, both the creation of the Spanish Inquisition and its ultimate recommendation to expel the Jews hinged on the belief that the inherent
'Jewishness' of the Conversos was not biological and could be overcome given sufficient vigilance and the proper social conditions. ${ }^{199}$

As would become the case with the baptized descendants of Muslims, increasingly this was thought to be impossible, although new Christians in this case were not expelled from the peninsula, only the (non-baptized) Jews were. ${ }^{200}$

## 1492: Expulsion

From their perspective, the Crown and Church had seemingly tried everything to allow for the successful (and faithful) conversion of baptized former Jews: they had dictated the separation of the baptized former Jews and their baptized descendants from former co-religionists, and had created the Inquisition to root out those not fully adhering to Christianity. Yet none of these efforts seemed to satisfy the Crown, some old Christians, and the Church, that the baptized former Jews and their baptized descendants were faithful Christians.

The most explicit reason found for the expulsions of Jews in the edicts ${ }^{201}$ was that to (finally) allow for the success in their new religion (Christianity), one had to prevent baptized descendants of Jews from having any contact with their former co-religionists

[^47](Jews), and the only way to achieve this was through their expulsion. ${ }^{202}$ Expulsion was necessary, said the edicts, to address
the great damage it appears that Christians have incurred and continue to incur in communing, conversing, and communicating with Jews, proving that they continue to manage, in as many ways and manner that they can, to subvert and detract pious Christians from our Holy Catholic faith and separate them from it and attract them to and pervert them with their dammed beliefs and opinions. ${ }^{203}$

The edicts did not use any distinctive language for the community of baptized former Jews and their baptized descendants, such as "converso" or "new Christian." They were simply referred to as "Christians."

There is no scholarly consensus as to the reasons for the expulsions in 1492, but some argue that
the expulsion is best understood as the culmination of a comprehensive policy of Christian unification that had been emerging in the peninsula even before the conquest of the Nasrid Kingdom of Granada. ${ }^{204}$

Furthermore, the implementation of the policy(ies) had not yet reached their height. Their implementation continued well into the seventeenth century and across the Atlantic. The desire for unification, centralization, and homogenization alone cannot account for the difficulties experienced by Crown, Church, and former and current co-religionists for the decades since the mass baptisms of Jews. Jonathan Ray argues that

Were it not for the mass baptisms of 1391 and the subsequent existence of an inassimilable community of Conversos throughout the Crown of Aragon and Castile, the expulsion of 1492 might not have taken place... [T]he Expulsion of 1492 was inextricably bound up with the long-standing problems created by the mass baptisms of the late fourteenth and early fifteenth centuries. ${ }^{205}$

Helen Rawlings argues (and Joseph Pérez would concur) that

[^48]anti-Semitic pressure from below and the drive for religious unity from above were the overriding considerations that led to the publication of the edict of expulsion. ${ }^{206}$

With hindsight, the Jewish expulsions may be part of longer processes of desemitization that would contribute to the expulsions of 1609-14. 207 These longer processes had not concluded in 1492/97, thus the simultaneous contradictions in the treatment of various communities. If the predominant aim of the Crown was unification, then expelling Jews and allowing Muslims to remain may be contradictory. Or put differently, why grant license to practice their religion to one group the very year that another religious group was expelled? Furthermore, in 1501, why would it be thought that the decreed baptisms of Muslims would be any different than that of Jews, or yield different results?

The expulsion of Jews did not fix the real or perceived problems with new Christians; similar problems continued to arise, at the very least in the discursive arena. Still, as the edict expressed, in 1492 conversion was still seen as a possibility. If the edict in 1492 was for unbaptized Jews—notwithstanding the increased internalization and somatization of difference, and purity of blood statutes-it still allowed for the possibility of complete conversion, and the efficacy of baptism; the long-term theorized meta-process was still in flux. Furthermore, since baptism was an alternative to expulsion, the number of peninsular Jews seeking baptism again increased. The expulsion of Jews did not end the prosecution and persecution of Judaizers; baptized descendants of Jews were prosecuted well into the eighteenth century. 208 Yet, they were not the only ones. In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, the Inquisition had many other groups of people to police for various "offenses": Protestants, skeptics/Humanists, Illuminists (Alumbrados), the baptized former Muslims and their baptized descendants, as well as the baptized Amerindians across the Atlantic.

It has been important to include the precursor mass baptism of Jews for two main reasons. First, some of the processes of othering that began after the mass baptism of Jews were not completed by 1492 and carried over into the processes of othering of the baptized descendants of Muslims: for example, the (re)inscription and proliferation of

[^49]categories; second, rather than a comparison (for similarities), which is the usual manner in which the mass baptism of these communities is handled, it is the aporias that are also of interest, especially in how these gaps and similarities confirm that the difference between the various communities in the peninsula had to be constructed in the absence of actual discernible difference in the epidermis and/or in beliefs, rituals and practice.

This catachrestic approach for understanding and using the baptism of Jews carries over to the inclusion of Amerindians in this project. Given that the mass baptism of Amerindians was contemporaneous to that of the peninsular Muslims, the discursive approaches of the Church, in texts, to these various communities can reveal more about the (actual) level of difference between groups in the peninsula. The foundational point becomes that, at the beginning of the sixteenth century, the epidermic difference between Amerindians and Spaniards was more significant than the much lesser difference between Spaniards who were descendants of generations of Christians, and Spaniards with Islamic or Jewish ancestry and had been more recently baptized, meaning within four to five generations. Or put differently, there was at least some level of constructed difference. Therefore, the introduction of the Nahuas (with related homogenous terms, "Aztecs" or "Amerindians") becomes the focus in the next section.

## Mass Baptism of the Nahuas: the Aztec and Nahua Context

After 1492, when Spaniards reached the various lands across the Atlantic, including what became known as New Spain, they encountered various indigenous groups with established religious practices and rituals. In New Spain, the Nahuas' religion, at the time of the conquest, can be (homogenously) categorized as a form of pantheism. For over a century prior to 1521, when Hernán Cortés (1485-1547) conquered Tenochtitlan, the Chichimecas (Mexica) had consolidated a Mesoamerican empire (Aztec) in what today is central México. The Aztec empire centered on the city of Tenochtitlan, a city of 200,000 inhabitants. This empire had "nearly 400 subject and allied cities from which [they] drew regular and substantial tribute payments." 209 The city of Tenochtitlan depended on trade

[^50]with these cities for the goods needed for its population. ${ }^{210}$ The tributary cities were varied: they were of different independent or ethnic groupings (altepet), each with further subdivisions or districts (calpolli). ${ }^{211}$

As part of the Aztec empire, all subject and allied altepet/ paid tribute; as a diverse group of altepet/ in Central México, socially and culturally they shared the Nahuatl language. Various altepet/ pre- and post-dated the Aztec empire (a political entity) and existed after the Spanish conquest, therefore it would be reasonable to use the term Nahuas rather than Aztec or Amerindian to refer to the various peoples encountered by the Spaniards in central México, and who remained after the fall of the Aztec empire. ${ }^{212}$

## After the conquest of Tenochtitlan by Hernán Cortés

the Mesoamerican empire fell, [yet] its constituent cities continued as before except that they were now independent or they had new overlords. ${ }^{213}$

The Aztec empire had a syncretic religious system which was hierarchical and included a pantheon of gods. In Aztec religion, the sacred was present in the world, and society mirrored the sacred. Rituals brought stability and re-created sacred stories.
[U]nderpinning Aztec religion [was the fact] that there existed a profound correspondence between the sacred forces in the universe and the social world of the Aztec empire. ${ }^{214}$

The extensive Aztec pantheon showed that
all aspects of existence were considered inherently sacred and that these deities were an expression of the numinous quality that permeated the world.

[^51]There was also "a spectrum of hierophanies which animated the world." ${ }^{215}$ Two Aztec practices that were notable and antithetical to the Spaniards (Christian) were human sacrifice and polygamy.

Religious life for Nahuas was ordered by ritual, and this ritual was directed by the imperial and altepet/ calendars. The primary function of priests, rather than being intermediaries as in Christianity, was as "ritual-makers."216 Religious ceremonies occurred not only at the imperial level in the many temples of Tenochtitlan, but also in the various districts; these other rituals revolved around agricultural cycles and local gods. ${ }^{217}$ The Aztec Calendar had two parts: a 365-day yearly calendar and a 260-day ritual calendar. ${ }^{218}$

The imperial religion of the Aztecs had political implications, and was also a means to maintain cohesiveness among the many diverse groups of peoples that were politically connected to Tenochtitlan. Here religion is seen as a mechanism of control. ${ }^{219}$ For the Nahuas, "[r]eligion was an integral part of sociopolitical organization."220 The tributary cities often provided the candidates needed for the ceremonies that required human sacrifice. When the Aztecs conquered new cities, religious conversion was not required, although "the conquered temples and associated buildings might be burned as the ultimate sign of Aztec victory." This had a "symbolic significance of defeating the local gods" but was also a "devastating blow" because these buildings tended to be the most fortified in the city. ${ }^{221}$

[^52]Although people with different religious backgrounds came into contact, during the first years of the conquest of New Spain, the conquerors (Christian) did not prioritize the baptism or conversion of the conquered peoples;
[r]ather, public conversions were political statements and occurred only after an alliance had been established and the Indians could no longer back out. ${ }^{222}$

For the rulers of various Nahua groups that allied with the Spanish against the Aztecs, baptism and/or conversion at this stage, as seen through a historical lens, was in exchange for Spanish assistance; baptism could be a political rather than religious act (yet, without endangering the indelibility of the initiation rite). Although baptism was sometimes considered coerced as well, in contrast to what Jews and Muslims experienced across the Atlantic the various Nahua peoples were not given the ultimatum of baptism or exile. ${ }^{223}$ The fall of the Aztec Empire had a more immediate impact on the elite and priestly classes. Later, the greater impact was felt in the political and religious realms when the conquered religion or peoples were deemed to compete with the religion and hegemony of the Spaniards. Indigenous priests were not able to function as priests, temples were destroyed, and holy sites appropriated for Christian use. ${ }^{224}$ Therefore, as noted by James Lockhart,
[ t ]he religious history of post-conquest México has often been seen in terms of successful or unsuccessful resistance to a Christian conversion campaign. ${ }^{225}$

Yet, because of the syncretistic and pantheistic nature of Nahua and Aztec religion, the fact that the Spaniards were victorious meant that their god could be added or assimilated to their pantheon of gods. Furthermore, the political orientation of an altepet/ could signal success in conversion. There was a great "intermingling of religious life and altepetl politics." ${ }^{226}$ There were many aspects of Nahua society and religion that were incorporated into the increasingly imposed modes of Spanish society and the Christian religion. Whereas, the predominant picture of the conquest and conversion processes

[^53]was the imposition of Christian and Spanish forms, and structure in New Spain, often the Church and the Crown superimposed their structures onto existing Nahua structures. For example, it is believed that the designation of a parish corresponded closely to the geographical boundaries of a single altepetl. ${ }^{227}$

Other aspects of Christianity worked well with the Nahua religious outlook. The Nahuas had taken great care in the building and maintenance of their local temples; they took the same interest and care with the building and care of churches. ${ }^{228}$ Furthermore, saints took the place of the local gods and had a
role in the corporate and individual life of the Nahua... [At the corporate level,] a saint was the primary symbol identifying and unifying each
sociopolitical entity, not only the altepetl but its constituent parts. ${ }^{229}$
With respect to the cult of the saints, the Church faced two problems: first, the identification of saints with pre-conquest symbols; and, second, the Nahua understanding that the images were indeed an actual manifestation of the saint, contrary to Christian teaching. ${ }^{230}$ James Lockhart concludes,

There is no doubt that a close parallel existed between the Spanish and preconquest Nahua religious systems. In Spain, the corporate aspects of local religion were expressed through images of saints with specialized supernatural powers, each image having its own attributes and being associated with a particular region, town, social group, or sub-district. Among the Nahuas a pattern of specialized gods behaved in precisely the same manner. ...A general principle of Spanish-Nahua interaction is that wherever the two cultures ran parallel, the Nahuas would soon adopt the relevant Spanish form without abandoning the essence of their own form. ${ }^{231}$

As Spaniards increased their political control in New Spain, the Church began its evangelism effort in earnest. Different from the coerced or decreed baptism of Jews and Muslims, there were three approaches to the baptism of the Nahuas. First, non-ecclesial views encouraged baptism and conversion as part of a civilizing mission of the native population of New Spain by the Spaniards and the Church, a civilizing mission that condoned the use of force if necessary. Second, Dominicans believed that the Gospel

[^54]should be preached but that baptism and conversion were not at the expense of the "political sovereignty and the private property" of the various groups of Amerindians, and were often more concerned with the theological underpinning and boundaries of the Crown's control of the lands across the Atlantic. Third, the Franciscans believed that the baptism of Nahuas and other Amerindians was part of a millennial expectation and the ushering in of the second coming of Christ. ${ }^{232}$

[^55]
## Evangelization in New Spain ${ }^{233}$

Monks, and secular and regular priests, travelled in the ships of the explorers and conquerors. Thus, from the beginning conversion and baptism were thought to be, and were, practically possible, as well as being individually pursued by some of these clerics. For example, when Hernán Cortés set out from Cuba in 1519 to explore the Yucatán
Peninsula, he had five clerics on his ship, and when he landed on Easter Sunday, a mass was celebrated. These conqueror-priests were not the principal evangelization agents for the Spanish Church, though per the chronicles of the time they nevertheless were the first

[^56]to baptize some of the indigenous people they encountered. ${ }^{234}$ Yet, these were not the clerics that would indoctrinate, found churches and monastic communities, or establish episcopal sees.

The territorial conquest and exploration was not detached from a parallel spiritual conquest; indeed, the spiritual conquest was a clear legacy of the Reconquista (reconquest). ${ }^{235}$ Presumably not solely for religious reasons, Hernán Cortés in his first letter to Emperor Charles V , related information about the evangelism effort on the part of the expedition and wrote about how the Christian faith was being taught to those they encountered, ${ }^{236}$ and how more resources were needed for that endeavor:

And we believe that it is not without cause that Our Lord God has been pleased that these arts be discovered in the name of Your Royal Highnesses so that Your Majesties may gain much merit and reward in the sight of God by commanding that these barbarous people be instructed and by Your Hands be brought to the True Faith. For, as far as we have been able to learn, we believe that had we interpreters and other people to explain them the error of their ways and the nature of the True Faith, many of them, and perhaps even all, would soon renounce their false beliefs and come to the true knowledge of God... 237

Charles V responded in 1524 by sending a group of twelve Franciscans to begin the evangelization effort; episcopal ecclesial structures took longer to establish. This was

[^57]Francisco Antonio Lorenzana, Archbishop of México (1766-1772) wrote in 1769, "[t]he first [cleric that arrived with Cortés] had the role of priest and pastor, he was Juan Diaz, baptizing and catechizing the infidels, as if he were an apostle." Concilios Provinciales (I and II), 8-9; see also 12, 14.
${ }^{235}$ See Robert Ricard, Spiritual Conquest, 15.
${ }^{236}$ Hernán Cortés, Letters, 11; see also, 12, 18, 23.
${ }^{237}$ Hernán Cortés, Letters, 36.
different from Granada where there were institutional-church structures that could be more quickly established, with the result that the evangelization effort started immediately. The form of the baptismal rite in New Spain was problematic because it was irregular given the dearth in availability of chrism as well as of bishops to bless the chrism: the angst around chrism was one that was characteristic of peninsular Christianity for centuries. ${ }^{238}$ Nonetheless, the church deemed these irregular baptisms valid, but in 1539 it decreed uniformity, and in the 1550s began to require instruction prior to baptism and marriage. ${ }^{239}$

The immediate documentary precedent to the establishment of the Church in the encountered lands across the Atlantic was the (re)establishment of the Church in the former Nasrid Kingdom of Granada. ${ }^{240}$ The right of Royal Patronage and Presentation for the Americas (West Indies) was granted by Pope Julius II (r. 1503-1513) on 28 August 1508 in the papal bull Universalis Ecclesiae. This bull referred to the 1486 bull Orthodoxae Fidei, noting that,
[Ferdinand and Isabelle] having shaken Spain from the Mauritanian yoke, achieved circling the ocean, to exalt, even in unknown lands, the banner of the Cross...so that in those lands false and pernicious rites may be extirpated, and the true religion be planted...we grant to Ferdinand and Joanna, and their successors, the right to consent to the construction, edification and erection [of churches] in said islands, and in others that are acquired, and places in the sea, and in those that belong to the State of the same king. ...And also we grant the right of patronage and of presentation of suitable persons [for positions in dioceses, cathedrals, monasteries, and other dignities.] ${ }^{241}$

The instructions to the twelve had many contemporary elements of religious fervor, including a sense of militancy and millenarianism, and were given this exhortation:

[^58]I send you to convert with words and example the people who do not know Jesus Christ Our Lord, who are held fast in the blindness of idolatry under the yoke of the satanic thrall...and win them for that Christ in such a manner that among all Catholics an increase of faith, hope, and love may result; and to the perfidious infidels a road may be opened for them and pointed out; and the madness of heretical evil may fall apart and come to nothing; and the foolishness of the gentiles may be made manifest to them, and the light of the Catholic faith may shine forth in their hearts. ${ }^{242}$

With the evangelization effort underway, and as was Church custom (including in Granada and Valencia), from the earliest years after the conquest there were gatherings of clergy and others concerned with the baptism and conversion of the indigenous population. Within months of the arrival of the Twelve, these and others gathered in the first Junta Apostólica (meeting) to establish a common understanding of the task of the administration and manner of the sacraments, baptism and extreme unction, evangelization and conversion, instruction and the content of doctrine. ${ }^{243}$ From 1524 until 1546, there were at least nine Juntas. ${ }^{244}$ The primary difference between these Juntas and the Provincial Councils that followed was the participation of both ecclesial and civil representatives in the former. The Juntas had an organizing principle not only for the evangelism project but for the civil administration of the regions that had been conquered, in this case New Spain and its surrounding territories.

In 1526, the evangelism effort was increased with twelve Dominicans; in 1533 with seven Augustinians; the Jesuits arrived in 1572. 245 Unlike Granada, for decades the evangelism effort fell outside of episcopal jurisdiction, since dioceses had yet to be

[^59]established across the Atlantic. Thus, "mendicants, not bishops, were the foundation of the young Mexican Church." ${ }^{246}$ In the bull Alias felicis recordationis (25 April 1521) Pope Leo X (r. 1513-1521) provided for evangelization efforts by the regular clergy,
so that in the lands of the infidels where they were residing they could propose and declare the word of God, and absolve those who find themselves excommunicated in these regions, and to receive and baptize those who wish to convert to the Christian Faith, and number them among the children of the Church. And so that those who are priest among these monastics may administer to such persons the sacraments of penance, the Eucharist, extreme unction and others, and that in the case of necessity, even with the lack of bishops in the province, the sacrament of confirmation, and to confer minor orders to the faithful, and that they could also bless chapels, altars, chalices, church ornaments, reconcile churches and cemeteries, and provide them with suitable ministers, and confer the indulgences that the bishops give in their bishoprics, and to do all the other things that would pertain to the increasing of the Divine Name, conversion of the infidel and growth of the Catholic Faith...and also that they could use the Chrism and Holy Oils for three years, given that in those parts these are difficult to find... ${ }^{247}$

The sentiment of this bull was amplified and extended by Pope Adrian VI (r. 1521-23) in Exponii nobis feciste (1522) ${ }^{248}$ and by Pope Paul III (r. 1534-1549). ${ }^{249}$ From the seemingly paltry start with twelve Franciscans, by 1559 there were 160 monastic houses with 802 religious in New Spain. ${ }^{250}$

With the right of Royal Patronage and Presentation, it was incumbent on the monarchs to establish the church in their conquered realms. This task took decades to

[^60]complete, since it did not benefit from existing structures, and, in some ways, was created ex nihilo. Different than in Granada, the regular clergy saw themselves as following in the steps of the apostles, and felt tasked with an apostolic mission akin to that of the early church. The first bishop, then bishop-elect Juan de Zumárraga (1468-1548), arrived in New Spain in 1528; the diocese was suffragan to the Archdiocese of Seville until the establishment of the Provinces of Santo Domingo, México, and Perú in 1546.

As the sixteenth century progressed, the church in New Spain shifted from being a nascent church to an established church. This shift was seen in the increased role of the secular clergy and in the creation of episcopal structures. The work of the regular clergy did not end; instead, the regular clergy became crucial assets in the expansion of the Spanish church and empire into the northern reaches of then territorial lands of México (the southern United States today). The secular clergy worked well within ecclesial structures; the regular clergy were well suited to work outside those structures. ${ }^{251}$

In both Granada and New Spain there was a recognition of the importance of knowing local languages for the success of the evangelization effort. This recognition was in tension with difficulties in translating the Christian message and the distrust of those same native languages. ${ }^{252}$ In Granada distrust overwhelmed any potential positive outcome in the knowledge of Arabic; the use of Arabic in the peninsula was dismissed before the use of native languages in New Spain. Friars needed to know the native languages to teach the Christian faith and ascertain the level of understanding of Amerindians, especially during confession. Robert Ricard analyzed the difficulty the friars faced; given the intense sensitivity to heresy that existed in the peninsula, the friars were aware of the difficulty in using native terms to explain Christian concepts which might do more harm than good. Yet, in using the Christian concepts, in their European form (Latin, Greek, or Castilian), they risked making Christianity always a foreign religion. ${ }^{253}$

[^61]On the other hand, and in a clear contrast with Granada, initially there was hesitation to have the Nahuas learn Spanish (Castilian). Hispanization or acculturation was not an early goal; indeed, the friars were clear that
so long as the linguistic barrier remained standing, they were the indispensable intermediaries between the Indians and the civil officer, between their Orders and episcopal authority. ${ }^{254}$

The process of Hispanization came later in the sixteenth century, along with the establishment of the Inquisition in New Spain in 1569. ${ }^{255}$ Acculturation was an explicit expectation in Granada; another observation that supports the hypothesis that difference in the peninsula was initially thought to be surmountable.

## Baptism in New Spain

The administration of baptism, therefore, was always preceded by a more or less summary, more or less hasty, instruction, depending upon the case and the circumstances. Unfortunately, we are much less informed about the preliminary instruction than about the catechism that followed baptism. ${ }^{256}$

Baptism was administered from the moment clerics arrived in New Spain. And, as noted, Junta and provincial-council documents express that there were challenges from the beginning, including different approaches to the evangelization project and the baptismal rite. The rite was increasingly standardized beginning in 1539 and lasting to the mid-1550s. ${ }^{257}$ There were progressive changes as time passed that can be seen in the various documents. For example, the pronouncements of the 1524 Junta were primarily concerned with the way the sacraments were being administered. There was concern that the great numbers of baptisms were being performed without the Chrism or Holy Oil necessary to perform the rite of baptism in its most complete form. ${ }^{258}$ This concern was common to all the early documents, and appeared again with regards to extreme unction. The following is said about baptism in a 1769 note to the primary texts' edition used for this thesis:

[^62]There is a debate regarding the manner in which the recently conquered Indians are being baptized by the Religious; some want to say, that they have baptized many together, spraying them with a hyssop and at the same time pronouncing the form; the foundation of this assertion is in that they performed many baptisms in one day, and sometimes the number reached a thousand. Father Torquemada...defends this position of the Religious, and even though he does not deny an example of a clergy person who has done this, and even that perhaps some Religious have done this in urgent cases, he also brings forth reasons to persuade, that this is not new in the church of God to [baptize] by sprinkling...referring to the fact that it might have been done this way by the Great Cardinal Francisco Ximenez de Cisneros, of the Order of Saint Francis, in the conversion of the Moors in Granada; and above all, it cannot be affirmed that the baptism is null. Soon after the arrival of the Religious there was not any Holy Chrism or Holy Oil, and because of this, after it arrived, all the ceremonies were performed, and all of the rites of the Solemn Baptism with those who had already been baptized only with natural water, or at most with blessed water, but not consecrated. ${ }^{259}$

From this note it is gleaned that: first, there was a sense that the number of baptisms was great; ${ }^{260}$ second, without a bishop there was limited availability of consecrated oil to perform the rite of baptism completely; third, relying on tradition, the baptisms performed in this "incomplete," or irregular manner were nonetheless considered valid. Historically, much as forced/coerced baptisms were deemed valid because of consent in the rite, so were these irregular (without chrism) baptisms deemed valid. In this case the tradition cited was contemporary-the evangelization and baptism of the Granadans. The fact that there were "irregularities" in baptism for Jews, Muslims, and

[^63]Amerindians should not also overstate that the "irregularities" were the same in all three cases: one was in form, the other two had varying "contexts."

Fray Juan de Torquemada (c. 1562-1624) had heard that these irregular cases of baptism were done in "urgent cases," which may have had to do with the high mortality rate among Amerindians because of foreign pathogens brought by Europeans and Africans. Resulting deaths also required oil for extreme unction. ${ }^{261}$ This biological devastation during the sixteenth century is described by Alfred W. Crosby:

The most spectacular period of mortality among the American Indians occurred during the first hundred years of contact with the Europeans and Africans. Almost all the contemporary historians, from Bartolomé de las Casas to William Bradford of Plymouth Plantation, were awed by the ravages of epidemic disease among the native populations of America. In México and Perú, where there were more Europeans and Africans-and therefore more contact with the whole world-and a more careful chronicle of events kept than in most other areas of America, the record shows something like fourteen epidemics in the former and perhaps as many as seventeen in the latter between 1520 and 1600. ${ }^{262}$

The "irregular" nature of the baptisms was also, in part, justified because of a Franciscan eschatological urgency, and that there was historical precedent to baptizing great numbers of people in the manner they had been doing. ${ }^{263}$

Baptism and extreme unction were not the only sacraments of concern for the Junta of 1524 . There was also a concern with confession and penitence, the Eucharist, and marriage. The Junta of 1524 also dealt with the education of the newly baptized and their indoctrination. In 1526, Martin de Valencia gathered the friars and again discussed the manner of baptism. Since the Dominicans had now joined the evangelism effort, greater

[^64]emphasis was put on instruction prior to baptism. Participants also discussed the system of encomiendas or the repartimientos of the indigenous population. ${ }^{264}$

From 1531 to 1535, Sebastian Ramirez de Fuenleal (d. 1547) ${ }^{265}$ convened several Juntas; in attendance were bishops Juan de Zumárraga and Julián Garcés (1452-1541). They continued to discuss the manner of baptism, but now also the issue of idolatry. During this time the question about the rational or natural capacity of the native population arose, and related to this was the issue of exploitation and tamenes. ${ }^{266}$ The main task of the Juntas was then to standardize practices. In 1536 they agreed to: build decent baptismal fonts, administer non-essential elements, such as salt, to a select number of Amerindians of both sexes chosen from all those requesting baptism, bless the baptismal water, and to apply the chrism to all those baptized, meaning to both sexes, and to both adults and children. ${ }^{267}$ In Granada the issues resembled more the ones of the rest of the peninsula rather than those across the Atlantic.

In the latter part of the 1530s issues of baptism, Amerindian tributes, and idolatry continued to be discussed. Bishop Julián Garcés wrote to Pope Paul III and eventually received the bulls of 2 June 1537, Sublimis Deus and Altitudo Divini Consilii. Sublimis Deus dealt positively with the rational capacity of the indigenous population and prohibited their enslavement.
[some] have not hesitated to publish abroad that the Indians of the West and the South, and other people of whom we have recent knowledge should be treated as dumb brutes created for our service, pretending that they are incapable of receiving the Catholic Faith. We...consider, however, that the Indians are truly men and that they are not only capable of understanding the Catholic Faith but, according to our information, they desire exceedingly to receive it. ...We define and declare ...that, notwithstanding whatever may have been or may be said to the contrary, the said Indians and all other people who may later be discovered by Christians, are by no means to be deprived of their liberty or the possession of their property, even though they be outside the faith of Jesus Christ; and that they may and should, freely and legitimately, enjoy their liberty and the possession of their property; nor

[^65]should they be in any way enslaved; should the contrary happen, it shall be null and have no effect. ${ }^{268}$

Overwhelmingly it was concluded that the indigenous population could be baptized and was capable of receiving and understanding the Christian message. Pope Paul III "declared that nothing justified depriving the Indians, who were reasonable men, of the blessing of liberty and the light of the Christian faith." ${ }^{269}$ Altitudo Divini Consilii also addressed the pastoral and sacramental concerns regarding baptism and marriage, as summarized by José Ignacio Saranyana,

As far as what has already been practiced, he declared licit having administered baptism without following the rites/ceremonies and solemnities established by the church...[F]or the future, he proscribed that baptism be celebrated with all the established ceremonies and solemnities, unless there was an urgent need. ${ }^{270}$

In Altitudo Divini Consilii there was the insistence that
the full rite be followed, save in cases of necessity when the imposition of salt, the Ephphatha rite with its use of spittle, the imposition of the white garment and the candle could be performed as in the Franciscan practice with a few representatives only. ${ }^{271}$

The meeting of 1537 again showed the process of increased consolidation and the increased desire for uniformity, ${ }^{272}$ with respect to various sacraments: including uniformity in the rite of baptism and the concern regarding the persistence of idolatry. Furthermore, as the church gained more structure, the emphasis shifted to the sending of suitable clergy; a recurring theme for the peninsular church as well. ${ }^{273}$ Eventually, as was the case

[^66]in the peninsula, the list of concerns regarding "conversion" continue to be repeated and thus increasingly function as discursive tropes rather than accurate to the ongoing reality.

In 1537 the bishops of México, Guatemala, and Oaxaca wrote a progress report to Charles V regarding the evangelization process. The bishops requested that Amerindians be organized into towns so that the task of evangelization may be improved. They requested that more regular clergy be sent, but asked that to not mislead Amerindians that they "be persons of doctrine, life and example, so that these natives are edified with their lives and honesty." 274

The progress report indicated that a continued challenge was that the native population vastly outnumbered the clerics and this affected the way the sacraments were performed. The letter described this numerical difference in the following manner:

We make known...that the regular clergy who have come to these lands, have had, and have great care in the instruction and conversion of these natives, and they have taken great advantage, given that they are very few, according to the quantity of people in this land, which are many, that cannot be counted, and they would have done more, if there hadn't been so great an obstacle for this conversion effort, and it is where there isn't more Christianity than what there is; given that these natives are so far, ones from the others, that they have not been able to be gathered like the regular clergy had wanted. ${ }^{275}$

Other challenges included the vast geographical distances and plethora of languages.
The bishops also requested that a theologian and a canon expert be sent to New Spain to help with the proper answers to the questions regarding the evangelization effort. ${ }^{276}$ Finally, they requested the construction of churches, schools, and a nunnery; these to aid in the indoctrination of Amerindians. The request for resources was a reality on both sides of the Atlantic.

The Juntas of the 1530s continued to be concerned with the way baptism was performed. The Junta of 1524 had appealed to the actions in Granada as a comparison;

[^67]the Junta of 1539, on the other hand, appealed to the history of the conversion of the Franks in the fifth and sixth centuries. In Section 2, it was stated that baptism should be done in the mode used during the conversion of the Germans, and in England
since we have the same case in our hands now... at this moment we have at our disposal many wholesome adult gentiles, who lived in a security of peace, who believed, and converted, and turned out for baptism, as they now turn out. ${ }^{277}$

Perhaps this shift was because by that point they were aware of the challenges the Church was facing in Granada with the new Christians. Sections 12 through 14 also dealt with baptism and had the overall objective of obtaining uniformity. Thus, baptism needed to conform to the rites of the ancient church and the bull of Paul III (1537), and holy unction had to be provided to Amerindians. ${ }^{278}$

Gatherings to discuss church polity and theology continued on both sides of the Atlantic in the 1540s. In June 1541 there was a meeting of theologians in Salamanca, which included Francisco de Vitoria, who discussed the preparation and understanding necessary before baptism, as well as the relationship between secular and regular clergy, and the need for suitable clergy for the evangelization project. In that same year, a Junta gathered to coordinate the pastoral work of the various orders. The first editions of catechisms emerged in the late 1540s and early 1550s. For over three decades the clergy had been concerned with the baptism of the indigenous population and had the general outlines of what each baptized person should know; now they increasingly had the tools they needed to improve the evangelization process.

With more ecclesial structures and a greater number of clerics, the church had matured enough to be able to gather in a regional ecclesiastical council, not just a Junta. The prologue to the canons of the First Provincial Council (1555) spoke to the transformation from idolatry to Christianity that had been achieved since 1524:

In these western areas so many centuries passed without knowledge of the Holy Gospel, and now we call in this last era to the knowledge of our Holy

[^68]${ }^{278}$ Apendice á los Concilios, 33-37.

Catholic faith to many barbarous and idolatrous people: put already under the obedience of the Catholic church, with diligence and expense, and people, and Christian zeal of the Emperor and King of Spain. ${ }^{279}$

The ninety-three canons of the council had as their aim the standardization of instruction, the manner of living of Amerindians and clerics, administration of the sacraments, and even included a long section regarding legal issues involving clerics (Canons 76-90).

The need for uniformity and standardization regarding baptism was a salient issue in the Juntas. Although this aspect of standardization was still present in the canons of the First and Second Provincial Councils, uniformity and standardization became a part of all aspects of the evangelization process. Canon 4 of the 1555 council stipulated that manuals of Christian doctrine should be written for the indigenous population, to standardize their instruction. The canon stipulated that Amerindians should only be instructed in those matters that they were capable of understanding, leaving "the mysteries and difficult things of our faith, that they may not understand, nor achieve, nor have a need for at this moment." ${ }^{280}$ Canon 28 called for uniformity in the saying of the Ave Maria, Mass, and Vespers.

Canon 2 dealt with baptism, although now with the requirement of a period of instruction prior to the rite. This was part of the ever-recurring theme (sometimes tropic) of the instructional challenges given the great number of adult baptisms in a very short time on both sides of the Atlantic, and the (real or discursive) repercussions generations later. It stated that no adult could be baptized without first being sufficiently instructed in the Holy Catholic Faith: "and be clean, and be examined, not only regarding idols, but also for old rites, and be legitimately married," and that special attention needed to be given to the examination of their leaders. ${ }^{281}$

[^69]With the shift toward an established church, by the time of the First and Second Provincial Councils there was a greater infrastructure, which had developed parallel to the time of the Juntas of the 1520s and 1530s. In this more established church, as Canon 65 states, clerics had to return to re-teaching basic Christian doctrine every year, and had to examine each and every Indian, in particular, and they must search for those that have never have confessed and tell them to confess, and [be sure] that those Indians who seek to be married [...] have knowledge of Christian doctrine. ${ }^{282}$

Revisiting Christian doctrine every year was related to the (real or discursive) difficulties faced in the extirpation of indigenous beliefs, since
experience has taught us that the natives of this land are naturally careless in what regards their souls without the due diligence of the clergy, and because of this it was advisable, and was necessary to have great care in having them learn the Christian doctrine, and to examine them in due time regarding their knowledge. ${ }^{283}$

Canon 64 stipulated that the Eucharist and the sacrament of extreme unction could be given to the baptized indigenous population and Africans (blacks) if they showed the proper devotion.

It has been doubted whether it was proper to give them the sacrament of the Holy Eucharist, because of being new in the faith, and of little direction and trust as is required to receive such high a sacrament, not without good reason this has been doubted, and because we are obligated, as with new plants, to provide them as parents of their souls with nourishment and spiritual sustenance, and at the present moment with kindness of God, in many of them it is known and can been seen signs of devotion...ministers can administer this Sacrament to the Indians and Blacks... [but], do not provide with indifference such high a mystery to all the recently converted. ${ }^{284}$

[^70]Canons 5 through 13 addressed issues of confession and penitence, thus beginning to show an interest in bringing persons back into the fold, even if these were used as a mechanism of control, as presented before in Section 1.1. Canons 8 and 9 dealt specifically with the jurisdiction of confessors with respect to the regular clergy. Canon 18 dealt with the feast days that should be kept and provided certain exemptions to Amerindians, so as not to burden them:

Because our Most Holy Pope Paul III considering the misery, and poverty of the Indians, natives of this land, dispensed regarding some feasts, that they not be forced to keep, and named those to which they were obligated. ${ }^{285}$

The natives had to observe twelve feast days plus Sundays and were obligated to fast three times a year. By contrast, Spaniards were required to observe over forty feast days plus Sundays. ${ }^{286}$

The church, as part of the instruction of Amerindians, was concerned with making sure that Spaniards, lay and ordained, lived honest lives worthy of imitation. If they did not go to mass, "God [was] offended, and these Indians recently converted are scandalized." ${ }^{287}$ The same was said of widows who were not going to mass:
[which was] against the commandments of God and the church, it is scandalous in the Christian world, and that of the Indians, and the servants of their homes, and of no little detriment to their souls. ${ }^{288}$

Not only did the canons deal with aspects of care for the souls of Amerindians, but a great number of the canons dealt specifically with the discipline of priests. For example, priests

[^71]were not to have contracts for the religious services and sacraments of the church; they were not to perform private baptisms or masses, etc. ${ }^{289}$ The continual concern with the behavior of clergy brings to the fore some interrelated issues: first, that "less than" practices, beliefs, and rituals were not only things to do with Amerindians or baptized descendants of Muslims or Jews, but that had to do perhaps with the need for reform for the whole church regardless of location; second, the purpose for repeating lists of concerns (becoming tropic) at times had other purposes, including discursive ones.

The Second Provincial Council was convened to receive the Council of Trent. Although the Council of Trent was received in this provincial council, many historians would say that the church in Latin America remained a pre-Tridentine church well into the nineteenth century. ${ }^{290}$ The introduction of the council document includes elements of the ideology discussed before. It stated
the obligation we, all the Christian faithful, have in believing, that there are two churches, the one called the Triumphant Church, the other the Militant Church. The one, where for eternity they live in perpetual joy and happiness...the other that we call the Militant Church, which lies where we, all the Christian faithful, are on earth, in continual battle with the devil, and the world, and the flesh, where there is no security, nor do we have certitude of the beginning, middle or end of our battle.

The contemporaneous mass baptism of indigenous persons in the Americas and Muslims across the Atlantic were on the surface similar events. The similarity lies in the agency of the Spanish Crown and Church in these mass baptisms. In their dissimilarities, the mass baptism of Amerindians and the previous mass baptism of the peninsular Jews can be used to understand the particularities of the mass baptism of the peninsular Muslims. Up to this point the concern is with the parallel nature of these mass baptisms; later, the concern will be with how the mass baptism of Jews, Muslims, and Amerindians mutually influence over several centuries the processes that led to the somatization of religion. The end of that posited process is seen in the analysis of the category of

[^72]"morisco" in the Sistema de Castas, but before reaching that point, the next section introduces the contemporaneous mass baptism of Muslims.

### 1.3 Baptizing Muslim Granadans

As was done in the case of New Spain, here follows a brief presentation of the religion of the Nasrids—Islam—which predominated in Granada until the mass baptisms at the beginning of the sixteenth century.

Islam emerged in the Arabian Peninsula in the early seventh century when the Qur'an was revealed to the Prophet Muhammad鶭 (570-632). Islam, like Christianity, is a monotheistic religion and asserts the unity and oneness of God (tawhid). Yet, in contrast to Christianity, in Islam anthropomorphic representations of God are forbidden.
Authoritative in Islam are the Qur'an and the traditions of the prophet (Sunna and hadith), and from these the law (fiqh) is derived. Islam is divided into two major branches-Sunni and Shi'a; mystical forms of Islam are denoted as Sufi. Within Sunni Islam, there are four major schools of legal interpretation: Hanafi, Maliki, Shafi'i, and Hanbali.

In Islam, there are several elements of faith or belief: the absolute unity of God, angels, the Qur'an, Muhammad䇾 as a prophet, and final judgment. Purification is an important practice in Islam and done in relation to many acts of faith. There are five practices (pillars) expected of every Muslim: the shahada, prayer, almsgiving, fasting (especially during the month of Ramadan), and the pilgrimage to Mecca (once in a lifetime). For Muslims, actions are described as either obligatory, recommended, permissible, forbidden, or reprehensible. ${ }^{291}$ Although prayer can be done anywhere, congregational prayer is encouraged, especially the Friday noonday prayer, and it generally occurs in a mosque. A major difference between Islam and Christianity is prophetology, thus the understanding of Jesus; Christian Trinitarian theology is not compatible with Islam.

In contrast to Christianity, there are no clergy or sacraments in Islam, and ultimate judgment of orthodoxy and orthopraxis is in God's hands. Orthodoxy is derived from the authority of the Qur'an and the Sunna. Although in Islam the faith of a person is not the

[^73]purview of others, and although Islam does not have institutional structures like Christianity, there are two ideas that function similarly to the Christian idea of heresy: bid'a and zindiq. Bid'a is innovation or "a doctrine or practice not attested in the time of the Prophet." ${ }^{292}$ Zindiq is a person who holds a belief contrary to Islam. ${ }^{293}$ Although in Christianity the church councils serve as a mechanism for dealing with heresy, in Islam, "efforts of the 'ulama' to reach some consensus on the community's beliefs and practices and thereby protect it from internal corruption" have a similar function. ${ }^{294}$

The first year of the Islamic calendar, the year of the hijra (migration from Mecca to Medina), is 622 in the Christian calendar. The Islamic calendar is a lunar calendar (and thus eleven days shorter than the Christian calendar). Integrated into this calendar are the times of religious obligation, such as the month of Ramadan. ${ }^{295}$ It is in Medina that the Muslim community (umma) was founded, and within a century after the death of the Prophet Muhammad敛, Islam had spread from the Arabian Peninsula as far as India in the east and the Iberian Peninsula in the west. Non-Muslim religious communities (dhimmi), primarily Christian and Jewish, could live under Muslim rule, although each non-Muslim person was subject to a tax (jizya). As has occurred in other contexts, although conquered peoples could maintain their religion,
the preservation or improvement of one's social status or prestige was probably the single most important cause of conversion during the first centuries of Islam. ${ }^{296}$

Forced conversion is prohibited in the Qur'an; in Islam, there is a lack of compulsion in religion (Qur'an 2:256). ${ }^{297}$

Islam arrived in the peninsula in the eighth century with conquering Arab-Berber forces, and there were Muslims continuously in the peninsula until the sixteenth century.

[^74]The primary form of Islam found in the peninsula was Sunni; the primary legal school was Maliki. Depending on the dynasty or taifa rulers, Islam was more or less tolerant toward religious diversity within its realms. Among the most intolerant rulers were the north African Almoravids and Almohads; among the most tolerant were the Umayyads; the Nasrids of Granada were in between these poles.

As the Christian monarchs gained ground in their conquest of the Muslim-controlled regions of the peninsula, they soon established the Church in the conquered realms through the designation of episcopal sees and cathedrals, and building of churches and other ecclesial structures. In 1436, Pope Eugene IV (r. 1431-1447) referred to the conquest of Muslim lands by John II of Castile and León (r. 1406-1454),

The notable exploits that [John], bravely, as a fighter and famous athlete of Christ, achieved against the perfidious/treacherous Moors, enemies of the Christian name. And not neglecting to personally lead the army in order to conquer the lands and places occupied by the Moors for the Christian rule, as we recognized for the splendor of the Roman Church... ${ }^{298}$

Therefore, John and his successors were rewarded by the Papacy by a series of rights and concessions, including Royal Patronage and Presentation. Likewise, on 13 December 1486, Innocent VIII (r. 1484-1492) issued the bull Orthodoxae Fidei, which conferred
on the King and Queen what the Count of Tendilla expounded on their behalf: power conferred in cathedrals, churches, monasteries, and conventual priories in the Canary Islands, the Kingdom of Granada, and Puerto Real, and the right of presentation of canons, prebends and dignities. ${ }^{299}$

When the conquest of the Nasrid Kingdom was completed, Granada became the ecclesiastical see of the established Archdiocese of Granada, ${ }^{300}$ which included the suffragan dioceses of Guadix y Baza, Almería, Cartagena, Jaén, and Málaga. Two key

[^75]markers of the establishment of the ecclesiastical see were the naming of an Archbishop and the endowment of the Cathedral of Granada. ${ }^{301}$

The church in Granada was established using the support and ecclesiastical structures already in place and, as such, quickly became an extension of the rest of the peninsular church. Given that ecclesial structures were established relatively quickly, the evangelism effort was under the purview of the secular clergy, different than in New Spain where the regular clergy took the lead initially. Furthermore, nearby prelates, archbishops, and cardinals ${ }^{302}$ showed interest in the church in Granada. In Granada, and to a lesser extent across the Atlantic, the creation of ecclesial structures was not only for new Christians, but for old Christians coming from other areas to (re)populate the region.

Because of surrender of the Nasrids, some Muslims migrated to places outside of the peninsula, yet a part of the population remained. ${ }^{303}$ To this native population were added many Christians from the north that were enticed to (re)populate the region. Although with the conquest the Church was established in the realm and Islamic religious spaces were taken over, as in New Spain the church was not immediately concerned solely with evangelism; the Capitulations granted a license for Muslims to practice Islam so long as they were loyal subjects to the Crown. This did not mean that baptism and conversion were not possible; it meant that baptism and conversion were by persuasion and freely taken (an important distinction for those who later sought old Christian status). After the transfer of power, fray Hernando de Talavera (r. 1493-1507) was appointed Archbishop of Granada; Talavera had a good relationship with the native population of Granada. Archbishop Hernando de Talavera believed in persuasion to seek and win the baptism and conversion to Christianity of the Muslims of Granada. A. Katie Harris writes that the monarchs

[^76]sought to convert Granada both in appearance and in fact. Soon after the royal victory, the process of Christianization and the restructuring of the city along Castilian lines began with the seizure of palaces and other lands for conversion into monasteries and government offices. ${ }^{304}$

In 1499, with Ferdinand and Isabella, the Archbishop of Toledo Francisco Jiménez de Cisneros (r. 1495-1517) visited Granada. Archbishop Jiménez de Cisneros prioritized the conversion of the native population of Granada: helches. ${ }^{305}$ Helches were descendants of Christians who had converted in previous generations. This would become one catalyst for the beginning of the final religious unification of the peninsula.
[Jimenez de] Cisneros, who added to his evangelism mission a great sense of governing, clearly warns that so long as a religious unity was not achieved, subjecting the defeated to the same law as the victors, the political unity achieved with the conquest runs grave risk of breaking, thus making it more necessary to intensify the conversion. ${ }^{306}$

As Alonso de Santa Cruz writes in his Chronicle of the Catholic Monarchs:
The archbishop of Toledo, Fray Francisco Jiménez, wished [in 1499] to remain in Granada with the zealous desire and intention of trying to see if he could convert the Moors to the faith of Jesus Christ, and if he could not, at least of seeing to it that those who were of Christian descent should be converted.... those who refused, he had put in prison until they were converted. ${ }^{307}$

Fray Francisco Jiménez de Cisneros demanded the baptism of Muslims of Christian descent. If they were not baptized willingly, they were imprisoned until they sought baptism. This overt and coerced baptism of these Granadans was a blatant disregard of

[^77]the Capitulations, which stated that "nobody may by word or deed abuse any Christian man or woman who before the date of the Capitulations had turned Moor;" and, "no Moor may be forced to become a Christian against his or her will." ${ }^{308}$ The helches incident, although not of foremost concern for this project, was one part or step in the discursive processes which increasingly thought of religion as inherited (blood). At the center of the helches incident was the question of how to reconcile to the Church Christians who had converted to Islam (and their non-baptized descendants). Another issue was whether the indelibility of religion (including baptism in Christianity) was inherently antithetical to the possibility of conversion or change in religion.

The treatment of helches was a catalyst for the first rebellion of the Alpujarras. In 1499, a bailiff (alguaci) was sent to the albaicín (Muslim quarter) to arrest a Granadan (helche) who had refused to "return," or convert, to Christianity; the bailiff was killed in the albaicín, inciting a revolt. Because of the relationship that had been built by Fray Hernando de Talavera and the Count of Tendilla ${ }^{309}$ this uprising was short lived. Yet, eventually a full-fledged rebellion began in the Alpujarras and extended to various places in the Kingdom of Granada. This incident shows the three differing approaches to Christian relations with the Muslims of Granada: those of the local authorities (Talavera and Tendilla), of the Crown, and of Archbishop Jiménez de Cisneros. Francisco Jiménez de Cisneros insisted that the helches were simply returning to the content of the faith of their ancestors; a view that supports the indelibility of religion.

Because of the rebellion, the Capitulations of 1492 were rescinded, and the Granadan population either had to agree to baptism or be exiled. The native population argued that forced baptism went against the original Capitulations, whereas the monarchs believed that the rebellions abrogated them. Therefore, after 1501 there were no free Muslims in the lands of Granada (and the lands of Castile), and technically, the remaining Granadan population had been baptized. For the first time in centuries, with the expulsion of Jews and the baptism of many of the remaining Granadans, the peninsula was well on its way to having only one religion in its realms: Christianity. This (forced) uniformity would

[^78]be finalized in the 1520s with the required baptism of all remaining Muslims in the peninsula.

The new Capitulations, as those of Baza and Huéscar, ${ }^{310}$ stipulated that once baptized the former Muslims would be treated like other Christians, and thus also have the same obligations as other Christians. Some of the new capitulations would later be disregarded or abolished, capitulations such as the validity of contracts in Arabic, ${ }^{311}$ and the permission to use their own butchers, so long as those butchers killed the animals in a Christian manner. ${ }^{312}$ Opting for baptism was seen as a way to start over: all offenses, including those related to the rebellions, were forgiven up to the time of the new capitulations. ${ }^{313}$ This tabula rasa was repeatedly requested in order to delay the actions of the Inquisition in the Kingdom of Granada and elsewhere in the peninsula. ${ }^{314}$ Although after 1501 the new Christians, who were considered Christian given their baptism, continued to request general graces for crimes against the faith, given the charge (at least discursive) of a slow pace of assimilation and acculturation. With the aim of indoctrination, assimilation, and acculturation, the Crown and Church repeatedly legislated against a variety of practices to make the new Christians seem more assimilated or part of the more normative (Castilian) culture. Many of these practices are discussed as part of the analysis of the primary documents in Chapter 3.

Hernando de Talavera, although not as intransigent as Francisco Jiménez de Cisneros, expressed in his Memorial (letter) to the residents of the Albaicín, ${ }^{315}$ ways in which they could successfully assimilate into Spanish culture and into the Church.

[^79]Talavera's recommendations would become a list of the elements, perceived and written about, which then served as proof of the resistance by the newly baptized population of Granada; the lists became tropes. The first item in Hernando de Talavera's Memorial told the residents of the Albaicín to "forget all Moorish things and ceremonies in prayers, fasts, feasts and births, weddings, baths, funerals and all the other things." Hernando de Talavera continued by listing the doctrine and practices they should know; ${ }^{316}$ the sacraments in which they were expected to participate; ${ }^{317}$ and encouraged them to do as other catholic Christians do (in terms of burial, marriage, guilds, and church attendance). Hernando de Talavera expressed the importance of indoctrination, especially for children. Before concluding the Memorial, he encouraged them to abandon speaking in Arabic both outside and inside the home, noting that:
so that your conversation is not scandalous to the cristianos de nación and they not think that you still have Muhammad's sect in your heart, it is important that you conform in everything and by everything in the good and honest conversation of the good and honest Christians in dress and shoes, shaving, and at the table...and most of all in speech, forgetting to the best of your ability the Arabic language, and to leave it behind and never speak it at home. ${ }^{318}$

Hernando de Talavera concluded the Memorial by resisting the imposition of excommunication on those who did not keep these rules, and instead asking the King and Queen to determine the penalties by other means. ${ }^{319}$ All of these issues repeatedly came up in the documents of the sixteenth century. They were seen in various capitulations in 1500 and 1501, the Royal Decrees of 1511 and 1513, the Congregation of the Royal Chapel of 1526, the reiteration of 1526 in 1539, as well as the Synod of Guadix y Baza in 1554.

The documentary evidence of the sixteenth century, when seen only in reference to the new Christians, seems repetitive regarding the ongoing issues of concern (lists that

[^80]may have also been discursive tropes that continue to be repeated historiographically): for example, Arabic, zambras, indoctrination, and secret Moorish rites and ceremonies. In illustration of this, from 1511 to 1513 Queen Joanna promulgated a series of decrees ${ }^{320}$ regarding baptism, butchers, and Moorish dress. Queen Joanna wrote that for the
newly converted...to be, as they should, very good and faithful Christians and have conversation with the old Christians, so that they can better learn and know the things of the faith...From now on the godparents...should be old Christians, and [godparents] cannot be any newly converted from Moor or Jew. ${ }^{321}$

In 1513, Queen Joanna responded to complaints by the new Christians regarding the lack of cooperation from old Christians to act as godparents. Old Christians required payment to be a godparent and sometimes had to come from a distance; therefore, Queen Joanna dictated a penalty of 10,000 maravedís for refusing to be a godparent to children of new Christians.

Similarly, regarding the new capitulations' insistence that the new Christians butcher their meat in the manner of old Christians, Queen Joanna was concerned that,

Some of the newly converted from the said Kingdom of Granada sometimes butcher meat as they used to in the time of the Moors... [Therefore] wishing that they be good and faithful Christians...now, meat can only be butchered by old Christians. If there is not a butcher that is an old Christian, they ought to have an old Christian as a witness, so that there are no Moorish ceremonies. ${ }^{322}$

Finally, some of the decrees dealt with the use of Moorish dress by the new Christians and in some cases by old Christians. The new capitulations stipulated that they could wear

[^81]Moorish dress until they wore out, but could not make new ones. ${ }^{323}$ In 1511, Queen Joanna, ordered that the
newly converted...from now on no longer have a memory of the things of the Moors and be and live as Christians, since that is what they are, and could not newly make any Moorish clothes, nor wear anymore the ones they currently have, except for the clothes that are in the form and manner of the old Christians. ${ }^{324}$

Of concern was women's head coverings or outer garments, called the almalafa, as well as old Christian women covering their faces. The penalty for the first instance of wearing Moorish dress was the loss of the clothing or almalafa plus a pecuniary fine. Penalties increased from there, and in the case of an old Christian woman and repeat offender, exile. The issue of the almalafa continued to surface through the 1520 s. ${ }^{325}$

On 25 August 1523, Queen Joanna and King Charles responded to a series of assessments by Francisco Núñez Muley in which he presented the great difficulties and harm caused to the new Christians by some of their pronouncements, in particular those decrees requiring cooperation and participation of old Christians. ${ }^{326}$ With regards to the requirement that godparents be old Christians, Francisco Núñez Muley explained the difficulties encountered by the newly converted given the dearth of old Christians available to take up this responsibility; this notwithstanding the penalty of 10,000 maravedís imposed on any old Christian who refused without a valid reason to be a godparent. Also, as Christians, Francisco Núñez Muley argued, the newly converted could be godparents, "given that they were already Christians and had turned to our holy catholic faith." 327

Similarly, about the requirement that an old Christian be present when an animal was butchered, Francisco Núñez Muley shows that this requirement caused great insult

[^82]and harm, and that an old Christian or clergy or sacristan was not always available. Francisco Núñez Muley noted that there were circumstances in which it would be unjust and cruel to wait for an old Christian or priest or sacristan for an animal to be sacrificed, especially if an animal was injured and suffering. Francisco Núñez Muley also noted that old Christians frequently insulted the newly converted when approached to witness the butchering. Francisco Núñez Muley requested that
any of the newly converted may butcher an animal that has to be killed in the presence or absence of an old Christian, because, otherwise, they receive much insult and damage and are mistreated and bothered, and because of this in them can grow some scandals... ${ }^{328}$

The two documents from the monarchs that related the petitions by Francisco Núñez Muley mandated that the matter be investigated to see if "in keeping the order there is damage and harm to the said newly converted."329

In 1526 Charles and Joanna visited Granada and referred to "Moorish" customs rather than Christian ones. ${ }^{330}$ Therefore they commissioned an assessment of the newly converted community throughout the Kingdom. This work was done by the Bishop of Guadix, Gaspar de Ávalos (r. 1525-1528), ${ }^{331}$ and was discussed in a meeting at the Royal Chapel. The agreements of this Junta were dated 7 December 1526. The purpose of this assessment was so that,
they ought to have great care in the praising of our holy catholic faith and extirpate, remove, and set aside the errors that Christians may be in...[and having visited Granada and seen]...that the newly converted...having received the water of the baptism of the Holy Spirit, had every day committed and done, and continue to commit and do, grave things against our holy catholic faith, following their first damaged sect of Muhammad, and its errors and ceremonies, of which I was given some accounts and petitions...[therefore I require a report] informing on the ways and cases in which the newly converted of Moors in this archbishopric follow the damaged

[^83]sect of Muhammad and its errors and ceremonies...[as well as of] the things that had been done against them... ${ }^{332}$

There followed a series of items that had to do with the overall administration of the kingdom and the wrongs done to the newly converted. The newly converted were, for example, prohibited from having Christian slaves or servants, carrying arms, moving to another region, or rescuing captives. Speaking Arabic was forbidden; and, all contracts (buying and selling) had to be in Castilian; old agreements in Arabic had to be translated and then the original Arabic version destroyed. There were restrictions on jewelry and privet (henna/alheña). As in earlier documents, so also in these later ones, circumcision and Moorish names were not permitted.

On 10 December 1526, the monarchs sent the recommendations of the Congregation of the Royal Chapel to the newly appointed Archbishop Pedro Ramírez de Alba (r. 1526-1528). The instructions included being vigilant regarding practices as they related to weddings, births (and circumcision), and baptisms (and naming). Births required the presence of an old Christian midwife. The instructions reiterated that on certain days the newly converted had to keep the doors open to their houses. When babies were brought for baptism they were not allowed to have henna on their forehead "because the chrism ought not to be put over the henna, and that in the baptism the child be given a name and nickname that is Christian." ${ }^{333}$

Most of the provisions of the Congregation of 1526 were not enacted. This was evident in later pronouncements, in the 1530s, which reiterated the pronouncements of 1526, especially those that have to do with zambras and Moorish dress. According to Luis

[^84]del Mármol Carvajal (1520-1600), for a large sum of money, the implementation of the Royal Chapel of 1526 was delayed for 40 years to the end of $1566 .{ }^{334}$

In 1539, as a response to a request made and discussed in a meeting in Toledo, it was noted that,
the newly converted of Moors [had requested that the King] concede them a general pardon for everything in the past, without condition of confession nor anything else, because of the difficulties and little ability they have. ${ }^{335}$

It was resolved that,
It should not be conceded in the way it was requested, since there is no room for the remission of sin without being preceded by confession; moreover, Your Majesty served by their merciful treatment, since they have been given two grace terms in exchange for [some considerations], another term of grace may be granted, so long as those who come to confess their offenses and errors fully and gave their confessions in writing to the inquisitors, would be received into the guild and union of the holy mother church and be absolved in form, without confiscation of property, nor jail nor dress, but in spiritual penitence, warning that if they return to their errors they will be punished according to the law. ${ }^{336}$

A further response ${ }^{337}$ recommended that there be a confiscation of property, but that for the first 25 or 30 years, unless for heresy or apostasy, only half of the property be confiscated. The recommendations were sent to the Inquisitor General and the Council of the Inquisition in 1540, and their response stated that they deemed reasonable, in exchange for 120,000 ducados, ${ }^{338}$ to

[^85]offer the general remission of all the offenses they have committed until that point, confessing them in writing to the inquisitors or representatives, as is required for the salvation of their souls, and be absolved without the imposition of any temporal penalty and... [without] the confiscation of property for all said offenses committed until now. ${ }^{339}$

Considering the pros and cons of confiscating the property, they resolved against the confiscation of property:

It should not be presumed that without [the confiscation of property] and penalties that it would give occasion for sinning, since they could be severely punished, by burning, exile, galleons, and with sanbenitos, perpetual imprisonment and floggings and other punishments, so if it seems that [this exemption should not be perpetual] that it could be granted for fifty or sixty years. ${ }^{340}$

The forty-year grace period obtained from enforcement of the recommendations of the Congregation of 1526 seems to have held for that period. Although similar issues continue to resurface, the frequency in some of them, such as Moorish dress or face/head covering ebbs. This is to say that many of the documents of the ensuing forty years allude to a continued status quo, with the exception that the frequency of the issues mentioned diminishes. This would forever change with the end of the forty-year grace period.

In the beginning of 1567 a decree by Philip II prohibited all Granadan socio-cultural vestiges (associated with Islam), without any further possibility for negotiation, including payment for autonomy. The longevity and strength of the regional Granadan practices had not been eradicated. Until then the baptized descendants of Muslims had been able to negotiate certain social, and some would say religious, autonomy. The hardening of the Royal position contributed to the second war/rebellion of the Alpujarras and the internal

[^86]exile of all non-combatants baptized Granadans (descendants of former Muslims) to other regions of Castile.

The first rebellion led to new capitulations; the second to the internal displacement of the Granadans (baptized descendants of Muslims) to other areas of the Kingdom of Castile; creating a different set of problems. The Granadans now exiled were created into a distinct community in these other areas and were the source of problems and tensions for the rest of the population. If the Granadans were thought not to have been able to assimilate in their own land, much less would they assimilate in other regions of the peninsula. Ultimately, at the instigation of the Duke of Lerma and Bishop Juan de Ribera, from 1609-1614 Philip III would seek to expel all baptized descendants of Muslims from the peninsula.

Since the historical narrative moves outside of Granada after 1570, that narrative is picked up, as appropriate, when discussing the primary documents and the reading of those documents in Chapters 3 and 4. Furthermore, when reading the primary documents, the following periodization is used: ${ }^{341}$

1) 1492-1501: a pre-baptism period from the conquest until the mass baptism after the first rebellion of the Alpujarras (1499-1501). By 1501 many of the regions within the Kingdom of Granada had negotiated new capitulations.
2) 1502-1526: a negotiated-autonomous period from the baptisms to the decrees of Charles V, and renewed interest in the baptized population. (Also, the mass baptism of Muslims in the rest of the peninsula.)
3) 1527-1570: a period of increased intransigence toward the new Christians and increase in repressive measures leading to the expulsion of the new Christians and their baptized descendants from Granada after the second rebellion of the Alpujarras (1568-1570). There was also a lull because of the negotiated autonomy.
4) 1571-1609/14: Outside of Granada and the events leading to the expulsion of all Christians, baptized descendants of former Muslims, from the entire peninsula.
[^87]Before moving to issues of historiography and methodology in Chapter 2, here follows a brief review of some of the theological and historical contours just presented that will resurface throughout the rest of the narrative of this thesis. Specifically, the salient issues brought up in the history and theology of baptism, the precursor mass baptism of Jews (1391-1415), the contemporaneous mass baptism of Amerindians in New Spain, which together begin to shed light on the understanding of the mass baptism of Granadan Muslims (and other peninsular Muslims), and the ultimate expulsions of a community or communities of Christians, baptized descendants of Muslims from the entire peninsula.

With respect to baptism, in the peninsula as elsewhere, infant baptism was normative, and catechisms were the primary form of religious instruction. With the mass baptism of Granadans and Amerindians the Spanish Church was again faced with the baptism of adults (as they had a century earlier with Jews); yet, in the peninsula, the Spanish Church did not revert back to the catechumenate (instruction before baptism-the Dominican view in New Spain), and thus was faced with a large number of baptized adults who had little, if any, formal knowledge of the orthodox Christian faith, including practices and beliefs. ${ }^{342}$ This state of affairs was not restricted to new Christians since the orthodoxy and orthopraxis of old Christians, including clerics—especially those in rural areas, was also deficient and inadequate in those centuries, issues addressed in the Council of Trent. ${ }^{343}$ The dominant narrative about these communities, as will be seen in the historiography in Chapter 2 (especially Section 2.2), was ultimately about an inassimilable community (historiographically not communities) of non-Christians, and for that matter non-Spanish, in spite of the rite of baptism—much like views of baptized descendants of former Jews and baptized Nahuas.

Yet, in the few Granadan primary documents introduced in this chapter and all those analyzed in Chapter 3, although deficiencies were noted in the Christianity of these communities, the validity of their baptism was not questioned (from the Christian point of view taken here). Increasingly questioned were Granadans' conversion, acculturation or assimilation, and instruction. Therefore, there were discursive processes whereby baptism and conversion were dissociated from one another, as analyzed in Chapter 4.

[^88]This in turn may be looked at as a parallel process of racialization (somatization) or othering (minoritization) of these communities of Christians, as analyzed in Chapter 3. These processes then help to justify the expulsions of perceived and constructed inassimilable groups, and help in understanding the policing of these communities as other through various mechanisms of control. The methodological aspects of identifying the discursive process(es) of othering are presented in Chapter 2. Indeed, Muslims were religiously other, thus the requirement of baptism, yet, that otherness was different than the (re)constructed otherness that develops throughout the sixteenth century. Put differently, it went from a surmountable otherness to an insurmountable other.

The other aspect of baptism which must be noted is how baptism was thought of as a rite of transition, whereby a change in religion could be achieved. While seemingly dogmatic, this is related to the theological stance in Christianity about the indelibility of the sacrament. One of the seemingly logical extrapolations of a stance of the indelibility of baptism would lead toward the inheritance of religion. If religion is inheritable, then religion is racialized as seen in the helches incident. Yet, if the indelibility of religion given through a rite is conflated with race or ethnicity and thus inheritance, then the stance of nonconversion becomes paradoxically equally valid. Notwithstanding the (perceived) level of success, or not, in the conversion/baptism of Jews, at the turn of the sixteenth century, the change from one religion to another was still thought to be a possibility. As seen a century earlier with Jews, as the sixteenth century progressed the erasure of a religious boundary (external) necessitated the construction of an indelible boundary (internal) that preserved the newly baptized (former Muslims) in Granada and their baptized descendants as different from other (Castilian) Christians, and therefore not able to be truly Christian, regardless of their baptism. A. D. Wright summarizes it this way,

The final identification of the [baptized Granadans and their baptized descendants] as an alien and unassimilable people, ultimately recognized as a racial enemy [and] no longer as supposed Christian subjects of the Catholic Monarchs, led precisely to the expulsion. ${ }^{344}$

With the theoretical underpinning presented in Chapter 2, this may be the discursive processes of (re)inscription, othering, and minoritization. Furthermore, with the same approaches from Chapter 2 the hybrid moments of this(ese) discursive process(es) can be

[^89]identified through the analysis of the primary texts in Chapter 3, where the non-static, or non-fixed, nature of the terms "morisco," and phrases "new Christian" and "newly converted" are analyzed.

With respect to the mass baptism of Jews, a century before the Granadans, there were processes that began in the fifteenth century with their baptism and culminated with the baptized descendants of Muslims, and even later across the Atlantic with the baptism of the indigenous populations. Although a new homogenous category of Christian was created, such as converso (or suspect Christian), for Christians of Jewish descent, the problem was again not with their baptism but with their conversion and continued influence by Jews that remained in the peninsula. Important to remember is that those expelled in 1492 were Jews; in 1609-14 it was Christians who were expelled. This was possible in 1609-14 because a non-baptized community had not been allowed to remain in the peninsula since the 1520s, and the baptized communities had been (re)constructed as other with the discursive use of tropes and metonymies. ${ }^{345}$ Therefore, since full conversion was still thought possible at the end of the fifteenth century, it is noted that the process(es) had not been completed. It is further noted that the initial religious otherness was not equal to the subsequent (re)constructed religious otherness. In this case, there was a movement from an inter-group otherness to an intra-group one.

There were other differences between the mass baptism of Jews and Muslims. For example, different from Jews, the Granadan Muslim population was a majority of the population in the region. Granadan Muslims were colonized; Jews had often been protected subjects of monarchs. Furthermore, the Granadan Muslims were not a transplanted population and thus many of the structures of daily life remained intact. The Granadans could be understood as colonial subjects, as were Amerindians. A. Katie Harris characterizes this in the following way,

[^90]During the first few years after the fall of Granada...despite the appropriation of some mosques and palaces by the victors, the city and its Muslim population remained in many ways substantially unchanged. ${ }^{346}$

Moreover, initially there was no popular animosity against this population (possibly only discursively), as existed in other areas against Jews. Notwithstanding this beginning, as the century progressed the history of Granada became very much defined by conflict, a conflict that may be a struggle of socio-religious identities, albeit of different Christian groups (intra-Christian vs. inter-religious). ${ }^{347}$ Whereas this was also happening a century earlier, the processes were increasingly cemented as the sixteenth century progressed.

The language used and changes in usage and meaning with respect to the baptized former Jews, as well as the language used about Amerindians also shows the presence of an othering discursive process (or processes) for Granadans and others of Muslim-descent in the primary texts. In some ways, these processes were exacerbated by the second rebellion of the Alpujarras and the internal displacement of the Granadans to the Kingdom of Castile, since after 1570 the addition of a great number of Granadans to the Kingdom of Castile proved to be negative for the (more) assimilated (now baptized) former Muslims in that region. The equilibrium that had existed in other realms between Muslims and Christians and their descendants was disrupted. ${ }^{348}$ The completion of processes of othering are seen in the primary texts after 1570 and outside of Granada.

As seen with the peninsular Jews, and as foreshadowed for the baptism of the Granadan Muslims, there were three competing and incompatible forces, which may in fact be discursive and/or historiographical: first, the belief in the possibility of full assimilation, Christianization, and acculturation of the baptized former Muslims or Jews and their baptized descendants; second, the desire to keep the communities of new and old Christians separate from one another; and third, the belief that it was impossible for these communities to overcome their Jewish, or later Muslim, ancestry; the latter has been termed the inassimilability of the communities, a frequently used historiographical stance. Paradoxically, the ultimate belief in the indelibility of their Jewishness or Muslimness

[^91](internalization and racialization of religion) had to be held in tension with the analogous indelibility of their baptism and thus Christianity.

Finally, with respect to the mass baptism of Amerindians, of concern is the language usage to refer to these communities before and after baptism and what it reveals about the Granadans and the level of difference between Spaniards of Muslim/Jewish descent and other Spaniards. In short, Amerindians are used as a control group and are of interest for what they can reveal about the Granadans. Although most trans-Atlantic studies move from the peninsula west, here the movement is from New Spain to the peninsula. Given the difference between Amerindians and Spaniards, the contemporaneous baptism with the Granadans, and the parallel council documents, the lesser difference between Granadans and other Spaniards is discerned. This lesser difference then brings into relief the discursive process(es) of othering of the baptized descendants of Muslims in the peninsula. For example, Amerindians were referred to as "Indians" both before and after baptism. The labeling/naming of the Granadans changed after the rite. Also, Amerindians were treated differently from Spaniards and had different Christian obligations, yet Granadans were expected not only to convert but to acculturate/assimilate. Finally, the rational capacity of the Muslims of Granada to accept Christianity was never questioned, thus leading to the (added) reasonable presumption that the difference between old Christians and new Christians in Spain was less than the difference between Amerindians and Spaniards.

Ultimately, the theological and historical presentation in this chapter serves as the foundation for the meta-narrative theory/hypothesis for this project regarding what process(es) can be identified across three centuries from the analysis of referential terms, before and after baptism, for different communities of Christians initially religiously other from Christians. Processes which began with the peninsular Jews and some of their baptized descendants continued with some of the baptized descendants of Muslims, and was completed as a racialized process across the Atlantic with persons of various mixed racial/ethnic heritage (Spanish-"white," African-"black," and Indigenous). In short, it is posited that in the fifteenth century the constructed new category of religiously other emerged; in the sixteenth century, the religiously other category was increasingly conflated with race and ethnicity as religion was increasingly constructed and seen as indelible, and eventually led to the full racialization (somatization) of the religiously other across the

Atlantic in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. This last step necessitated the conflation of Islam and "blackness" in the African bodies of slaves or anyone with African blood in this context.

The next chapter presents the historiographical and methodological approaches to the study of Spain, in general, and specifically the study of this(ese) community(ies) of Christians who were baptized descendants of Muslims. This will lead to the enactment in chapters 3 and 4 of a multi-faceted reading strategy.

## Chapter 2: Studying Spain and the Granadans

The objective of this project is to identify referential language and textual processes that helped to justify the 1609-14 expulsions of some Christians, descendants of Muslims, by discursively constructing them as non-Christian and non-Spanish; historiographically as the so-called "moriscos." The aim of this chapter is to contextualize this goal within a broader historiographical and methodological framework, or within the framework of how the study of these communities has been previously approached as opposed to the way these communities are approached in this project.

The referential language is identified in part to aid in an untangling of historical language from the historiographical, and thus to unearth some of the ways in which these communities were (re)constructed as other and then historiographically reified as such. This may be the difference between studying "moriscos" and studying "new Christians." The historiographical and inter-disciplinary methodological presentation includes the introduction and development of the multifaceted approach used to analyze the primary texts of interest for this study.

The study of the history of "Spain" has often sought to present a unified picture of "Spain" through the centuries: the "one, eternal Spain." ${ }^{349}$ In the late-nineteenth and earlytwentieth centuries some of the primary approaches to the history of medieval and earlymodern "Spain" were philological and positivist with a focus on cataloguing texts, "Spanish" heroes such as el Cid (1043-1099), and the Spanish (Castilian) language, including its development. ${ }^{350}$ In the early-twentieth century different approaches to the history of "Spain" began to take hold, more relativistic approaches, including a focus on the history of ideas. ${ }^{351}$ A common thread in these latter approaches was their European or

[^92]occidental orientation, a desire to connect "Spain" to the broader history of the European continent, even while showing its uniqueness. The correlative to these Occidentalizing or Europeanizing approaches was the continual desemitization or deorientalization of the history of "Spain." 352 The history of ideas and "meta" approaches, as they relate to the idea of Spain were also a response to broader trends in the historical endeavor throughout Europe. ${ }^{353}$ Mercedes García Arenal summarizes the Spanish historiography of the time as
sharply divided between a traditional, Catholic, nationalist strand and a liberal, secular strand that in turn was linked to and nourished by the Protestant historiography of Spain that developed in northern Europe beginning in the seventeenth century. Although diametrically opposed to one another, both in fact present the same image of an undivided Spain, where absolute royal power and the church are inextricably linked, where there is no intellectual or ideological pluralism of any kind, and all of whose citizens stand firmly united behind its singular version of the Catholic Reformation credo under the watchful eye of the Inquisition. ${ }^{354}$

The notion of an undivided "Spain" has often been a reaction to the historical and historiographical construction of contrary ideas about Spain and Spanishness from internal and external factions. Historical narratives that present either exceptional or homogeneous histories have been increasingly challenged by the unearthing of a plurality

[^93]of voices, including regional differences, as well as inroads into understanding the shared daily lives of many in the peninsula, which may variously be the places of intersection of self and other, and thus show the constructed nature of difference in this context. As presented in the Introduction and shown in Chapter 3, time and region are important variables to understanding the referential language denoting the baptized descendants of Muslims.

The multi-faceted reading strategy presented at the end of this chapter requires the untangling of some of the history of this period from historiographical approaches and biases: from myths and overarching narratives; as well as adding some tools from other fields not typically used in the historical study of these communities. The chapter begins, in Section 2.1, with some "meta" narratives regarding the construction of the ideas of Spain and Spanishness, as seen in the so-called Gothic Myth; and in geography with the ideas of Iberia, Hispania, and al-Andalus. Section 2.2 is an exposition of one of the very traditional and major historiographical debates in the study of "Spain," Convivencia (living together, coexistence) and Reconquista, as exemplified in the sparring between Américo Castro (1885-1972) and Claudio Sánchez Albornoz (1893-1984). ${ }^{355}$ This historiography also requires being freed from the often unchallenged so-called Black Legend or the discourses which aim to "blacken" Spain morally and racially. Section 2.3 is more narrowly focused on some of the traditional approaches used in the study of the baptized descendants of Muslims, followed by a presentation of some more recent approaches which may be applied to the study of this(ese) community(ies) such as, post-colonialism, deconstructionism, etc. These then lead to a presentation, in Section 2.4, of a practical multi-faceted reading strategy that will be used in the analysis of the primary documents of concern in this project.

The historical endeavor is often about making sense of the present: articulating the history of Spain to discover the essence of Spain and its people. Those studying the medieval and early-modern periods try not only to understand the history of those centuries, but to articulate the contribution of those centuries to what Spain and its people

[^94]are today. ${ }^{356}$ For example, the debate between Américo Castro and Claudio Sánchez Albornoz was not just about the unifying narratives of Convivencia and Reconquista, but also about the nature of "Spanish" history, associated (nation) myths, and the contributions, if any, of "minority" groups to the formation of the idea of "Spain" and its people. These are related to stances taken on the importance of the period from 711 to 1609, and the impact of Muslim and Jewish presence in the peninsula, for what Spain is today. For example, in 1948, Américo Castro opposed the then prevalent view that The centuries of semi-Moorish history in Spain (711-1492) are regarded by many as a long and annoying interval, as nothing but a protracted military enterprise, slow and laborious, after which Spain returned to normality, albeit scarred and retarded here and there-- ${ }^{357}$
and challenged "the central myth of Spanish historiography, that of 'one, eternal Spain." 358
J. N. Hillgarth characterizes "the debate on the nature of Spanish history" as "a debate which represents in our own time the perpetually recurring Spanish anxiety to explain the past of Spain" and a "debate that illustrates the power of established myths."359 J. N. Hillgarth notes that Américo Castro and Claudio Sánchez Albornoz were working with myths that aimed to replace the other and that the latter's myth in particular was a distorted view of "Spanish" History. ${ }^{360}$ Where Américo Castro saw influence by Muslims and Jews (Convivencia), Claudio Sánchez Albornoz saw Christian resistance and ultimate victory (Reconquista). Moreover, historians, like J. N. Hillgarth, often position themselves in relation to these schools of thought, and create a hierarchy of them. J. N. Hillgarth writes,

[^95]It would be absurd to deny that Castro wrought a Copernican revolution in Spanish historiography, a revolution which may be refined but cannot be reversed. Myth for myth, the myth that Spain was created by the convivencia, the productive tension, of three religions, is undeniably truer to the fact than the idea that the Islamic conquest of 711 represented no more than "a step backwards-unparalleled in the West-in the progress of an historical community-towards its national unity," or than the concept that the eight centuries between 711 and 1492 constituted simply a long crusading attempt to return beyond 711 to a world of pure orthodoxy and uncontaminated Hispanism, under a new dynasty of "gothic" rulers. ${ }^{361}$

These historiographical stances have created a binary view of the history of Spain, with many other standpoints aligned with one camp or the other. These positions also become mutually reinforcing. Each side of the binary challenges the other; such as the challenge of the discourse of the "Gothic Myth" by the discourse of "convivencia." After Américo Castro, Muslims and Jews could no longer be ignored in the history(ies) of the peninsula and their impact on Spain—or the idea of "Spain." Joseph F. O'Callaghan agrees with J.
N. Hillgarth's assessment and Américo Castro's challenge to "the concept of an eternal and immutable Spain and Spanish character" but warns that Américo Castro's vision was as static as that of Claudio Sánchez Albornoz. ${ }^{362}$

The myth of the "one, eternal Spain" is also related to the discourses of the "Gothic Myth," which some have traced through the various histories of the peninsula, starting from Isidore of Seville (c. 560-636), ${ }^{363}$ through the medieval and early-modern periods. The idea that ultimately Philip III "preferred faith to farda"364 may be part of this view.
'Quest for unity,' when analyzed, proves to be a modern, secularized, somewhat metaphysical version of a much older idea, the idea that Spanish

[^96]history is the history of a crusade, that in it one can see the struggle of one favored religion against its rivals, and its ultimate triumph over them. ${ }^{365}$

The discourses of the "Gothic Myth" rely on the ascendancy of Castile as the defining religious and socio-political milieu of the peninsula and thus the Spanish Empire. This view of history shows how Spanishness has often been defined by Castilian elements and scholars have taken this for granted. ${ }^{366}$ The myths, explored by J. N. Hillgarth, have an explicit consequence, which can clearly be seen in New Spain:

Spain narrowed down not only to the Christian tradition but to that tradition represented by Castile. By identifying 'Iberian’ or 'Spanish' man with Castile, non-Castilian Spaniards (and the Portuguese) are inevitably relegatedalmost as effectively as Jews and Muslims-to an inferior status. ${ }^{367}$

Removing Spain from Europe is paralleled in the removal of certain elements from "Spain." The way this is done discursively is seen in approaches to answers to the questions: "who are the Spaniards?" and "what is Spain?" This has been the (re)construction and (re)inscription of hierarchical differentiation; in this project the creation of non-Christians (suspect Christians) and non-Spanish (alien).

### 2.1 Problematic Ideas of Spain and its People

The communities of concern for this project are of baptized descendants of Muslims in the peninsula. It is the position taken for this project that they were Spanish as others in the peninsula were also Spanish. Yet, there is historiographical confusion, given the racialization of religion, of this community at best as a "minority" community, or communities, and at worst as an indelibly "foreign" element within its borders. Therefore, to begin to understand how they were discursively constructed as non-Spanish, there needs to be an appreciation of that which has been constructed as Spanish. Who then

[^97]${ }^{367}$ J. N. Hillgarth, "Spanish Historiography," 36.
are the Spaniards? And related to this, who narrates(ed) or defines(ed) who the Spaniards are or were?

Writing in the middle of the twentieth century, Américo Castro believed that Spaniards had been shaped by everything that had come before, including the existence of persons of different religious backgrounds throughout the centuries. ${ }^{368}$ For Claudio Sánchez Albornoz, Spaniards were descendants of an ever present and distinct homo hispanus, traced from before 711 and beyond. ${ }^{369}$ The homo hispanus was "shaped in the forge of the reconquest with the iron of the primitive Spanish." ${ }^{370}$ For Claudio Sánchez Albornoz, underneath the "dissimilar superstructure" of the various peoples of the peninsula, "was the same homo hispanus, with parallel qualities and analogous defects." ${ }^{371}$ The assumption by Claudio Sánchez Albornoz seems to be that there was an outward difference, but that the homo hispanus was held in common. This is problematic at various levels, such as: can this "dissimilar superstructure" be an assumption on real epidermic difference? And, does this not go against the eventual stance on the indelibility of religion which justified the expulsions, when the indelible was the Hispanic? For Claudio Sánchez Albornoz the hispano-Muslim contributed to the Spanish its Hispanic rather than Muslim heritage, but the hispano-Christian contributed more. ${ }^{372}$

[^98]Analogously and contemporaneously to the homo hispanus was the hispani traced by José Antonio Maravall Casesnoves. The hispani was a human group with a common origin that was conscious of its origins. This human group survived the more than 800 years of Muslim presence in the peninsula, and can be traced alongside the unifying ideas of gothic continuity and the Reconquista. Maravall Casesnoves proposed that the hispani was a group with five characteristics. They were: unified in action with and against other human groups; under the same political obligation; with a unique and common history; without prejudice to the various internal groups; and united in a historical destiny. ${ }^{373}$ For both Sánchez Albornoz and Maravall Casesnoves, Jews and Muslims and their descendants were not constitutive of the "Spaniard." These views have been challenged by recent approaches, which highlight the internal and regional plurality and reality of the peninsula.

The homogenous ideas of the Spaniard have an analogous specific geography: the locus of the Spaniard tied to a specific peninsula in the European continent. This is the other side of the binary-the regionalism and plurality characteristic to the peninsula. The geographic idea of a unified peninsula is traced to the Greek designation of this promontory as Iberia ${ }^{374}$ and the later Roman designation as Hispania. ${ }^{375}$ More than two millennia ago, the peninsula was settled by waves of Celts and lberians, among others. The Romans unified the region under Emperor Augustus (27 BCE-14 CE), and as Roger Collins notes, there would not be another great migration or invasion for 400 years. Roger Collins summarized this in the following way:

Spain under Roman rule was...tranquil and economically prosperous.... Its great cities were amongst the finest and most flourishing in the western half of the Empire and it was an integral part of the whole world.... The Visigoths and the Arabs were themselves the beneficiaries of Graeco-Roman culture,

[^99]both material and intellectual, and in both cases had less that was clearly and attractively superior to offer the conquered populations. ${ }^{376}$

The idea of Spain as Hispania, encompassing the land southwest of the Pyrenees, is a powerful and compelling idea, in competition with the reality of its internal geography. ${ }^{377}$ Furthermore, the prodigious geographical boundary of the Pyrenees has led to various interpretations of the peninsular history with respect to the rest of the European continent, the Mediterranean world, and the British Isles, whether of isolation or contact. This specific geography lends itself to histories or narratives about the peninsula which value time periods when its geography was deemed united under one rule: Romans, Visigoths, Hapsburgs, etc. Joseph F. O'Callaghan summarizes this in the following manner:

The concept of a unified and indivisible kingdom embracing the entire lberian Peninsula, though it hardly corresponded to reality, was one of the most significant elements in the Visigothic legacy. ${ }^{378}$

The imagined, thus discursive, continuity of the Visigoths and the geographical unity of Hispania were foundational myths and impetus for the Reconquista. ${ }^{379}$

On the heels of the decline of the Roman Empire, in the fifth century a series of Germanic tribes crossed the Pyrenees and over the next 150 years Visigoths ${ }^{380}$ gained greater control of all its regions, while defeating Sueves, Franks, and Byzantines, among others, who also had interests in the same lands. From 569, the beginning of the reign of Leovigild (r. 569-586), to their defeat in 711, the Visigoths would in effect rule over the entire peninsula. ${ }^{381}$ The Visigoths converted from Arian to Roman Christianity in 589. ${ }^{382}$

[^100]In 711, Arab-Berber forces entered the promontory from North Africa under the command of Tariq ibn Ziyad (670-720) and defeated Roderic (r. 710-11) in the Guadalquivir valley. More Arab-Berber forces arrived and strengthened their political hold and populated areas of the peninsula. Over the following decades, a series of governors and clients of the Umayyads would rule the area of the peninsula south of the Duero and Ebro valleys. ${ }^{383}$ The push north was primarily in the direction of the Ebro valley and the Pyrenees (north and east); the Duero valley (north and west) seems to have been less of a concern. Well into the period of the Umayyad Caliphate (929-1031) much of the region of the Ebro and Duero valleys was the fluctuating frontier between the Christian north and the Muslim south. ${ }^{384}$

There is a lack of consensus, both historical and historiographical, about the actual legacy of the Visigoths beyond 711 and how this legacy contributed to the formation of the idea of Spain, as it is understood throughout the centuries. ${ }^{385}$ The question of the period of 711 to 1492 is important because prior to the Catholic Monarchs and the Hapsburgs in the late-fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, the last time the imagined Hispania or Spain was religiously and politically united was under the Visigoths. ${ }^{386}$ Then, the imagined, discursive and perpetuated continuity between the Visigoths and the Hapsburgs has permeated much of Spanish historiography, and requires the undervaluing of the contributions to Spain and its people from Muslims and Jews, and their descendants. This devaluing is, in some ways, accomplished discursively by making descendants of Jews or Muslims non-Spanish: alien and suspect. Yet, by noting the contributions of Muslims and Jews to what Spain and Spanish are, Américo Castro did not really mean that he considered members of these communities as fully Spanish.

[^101]The mythical Visigothic continuity underpins the ideology of Reconquista-the discourse of continual resistance to the Arab-Berbers peoples and their religion, from 711 to the fall of the Nasrid Kingdom of Granada in 1492, the subsequent baptism of the last Muslims in Granada and Castile, in 1501, and in the other kingdoms in the 1520s, and the expulsions of many Christians, descendants of Muslims, in 1609-14. Although there is now scholarly agreement that the Visigothic continuity is more a notion than a fact, the idea was discursively powerful enough in guiding some in their Reconquista impetuses. ${ }^{387}$ This is to say that just because it is known to be an idea does not mean that its effects remained only in the imaginary; some agents were directed to historical action by that conviction. The idea of Visigothic continuity is also related to the notion of the hispani/homo hispanus discussed before. ${ }^{388}$

The motivations to recover the peninsula by the so-called heirs of the Visigoths began soon after the Arab-Berber invasion of 711. The evidence used to make this argument are the late-ninth and early-tenth century chronicles, ${ }^{389}$ and their description of the defeat of Arab-Berber forces by Pelagius (r. 718-737) at the Battle of Covadonga in 722. By the time the chronicles were written this battle had gained legendary status and had become the foundational myth for the Kingdom of Asturias. ${ }^{390}$ Although Pelagius was probably an Asturian figure, the chronicles make him into "a legitimate representative of the ruling line of the Visigothic kingdom as a whole"; ${ }^{391}$ Alfonso I (r. 739-757), son-in-law of

[^102]Pelagius, claimed descent from the late sixth-century Visigothic rulers Leovigild and Reccared. ${ }^{392}$

Although the story of the Reconquista and the idea of gothic continuity begins with Pelagius and the Asturian revolt, Derek W. Lomax's reading of the sources indicates that the seeds of these ideas were first found in the reign of Alfonso II (r. 791-842) who consciously imitated Visigothic practices, ${ }^{393}$ and later in chronicles from the reign of Alfonso III (r. 866-910). The claim to a Visigothic lineage also underlined a geographical claim to the peninsula and a religious claim as defenders of the Christian faith. From this angle the Reconquista was a return to the glorious Visigothic past. Derek W. Lomax writes that "they decided to reconquer the south as if recovering property stolen from their ancestors," ${ }^{394}$ and Muslims had no right to the peninsula-even though it was their homeland. ${ }^{395}$ This is seen as part of the construction of Muslims as perpetually an alien people. ${ }^{396}$ Yet, not all historians trace the idea of Reconquista to the eighth or ninth centuries; Roger Collins traces this ideology to the late-eleventh and early-twelfth centuries; and Richard Fletcher does not agree that the idea of Reconquista was a primary concern for the ninth century at all. ${ }^{397}$
J. N. Hillgarth traces the discourses of the Gothic Myth through various stages and regions in the medieval and early-modern periods, including through the ascendancy of various Christian kingdoms in the north: Asturias to León to Castile. Other northern kingdoms, such as Navarre, Aragón, and Catalonia "did not consider their history as a continuation of the Visigothic monarchy."398 In other kingdoms there was a different Visigothic "continuity," namely that of descendants of the Goths who had converted to

[^103]Islam, such as the Banu Qasi who claimed descent from a Visigoth named Cassius, a convert to Islam and client of the Umayyads. ${ }^{399}$

For the eleventh century, J. N. Hillgarth explores the anonymous Historia Silense from León ${ }^{400}$ and the migration of mozárabes to the north and their role in the survival of the Visigothic (Mozarabic) liturgy. ${ }^{401}$ The myth is then traced in the writings related to the pilgrimage of Santiago in the twelfth century, ${ }^{402}$ and later the Chronicon mundi of Lucas, Bishop of Tuy (r. 1239-1249) and De rebus Hispanie by Rodrigo, Archbishop of Toledo (r. 1208-1247). ${ }^{403}$ The idea would not resurface again for another two centuries, with a renewed interest in connecting present history to the Visigoths and the destruction or loss of Spain in 711, and legitimize the ascendancy of Castile. ${ }^{404}$ Of importance, then, were the writings of Pablo de Burgos and Alfonso de Santa María in fifteenth-century Burgos, who single-handedly seem to have revived the myth. ${ }^{405}$

The revival of the myth was pivotal in the ascendancy of Castile. As the territorial Reconquista concluded in 1492, the discourses of the Gothic Myth neatly summarized the 800 years of (re)conquest. This can be summarized in two citations found in J. N.

[^104]Hillgarth's Visigoths: first, Peter Linehan's assessment of the Asturian Gothic Myth that "the Asturian kings hijacked a corpse, acquired its papers, and assumed its historical identity," and, second, Stephen Gilman's conclusion that
the epic past was self-consciously reestablished, accompanied by the wild enthusiasm of a reunited nation. Perhaps that was the only time in world history that an idealized past was programmatically restored and not just dreamed up. ${ }^{406}$

The purported continuity of the Visigoths as the ancestors of the Christian Spaniards is always confronted by the long-standing presence of Muslims and Jews in the peninsula, who could themselves have had a gothic lineage and were native to the peninsula, and alternative historical lenses. Yet, the reality remains that territorial Reconquista included a series of discursive processes of othering and of "purification" that helped to justify getting rid of the elements perceived and constructed as non-Spanish and non-Christian. And, in the case of "Spain" eventually getting rid of a part of the self, undifferentiated from the other.

Geographically, the designations of lberia or Hispania are Western labels for mostly co-terminus extensions of land which for the most part coincide with the countries known today as Spain and Portugal. Yet, at times, parallel to these designations was the Arabic term "al-Andalus," usually equated with the idea of "Muslim Spain." No consensus exists regarding the etymology of the term "al-Andalus"; some explanations relate the term to herculean myths, some to the legend of Atlantis or proximity to the Atlantic Ocean, others to the prior presence of the Vandals (early-fifth century), among many different explanations. ${ }^{407}$ Yet there is consensus that the term "al-Andalus" began to be consciously used shortly after 711, and that the term historically designated the region of the peninsula under Muslim control. This designation was used regardless of which

[^105]Muslim ruler or dynasty was in control: from the Umayyads, to the taifa kingdoms, to the north-African kingdoms (Almoravid and Almohad), to the last Muslim rulers in the peninsula, the Nasrids.

Aside from etymology, the term was used to create a rupture with the past and mirrored the changed political situation of the peninsula. As a term, it resisted any hybrid quality, thus suggesting a static stance, and not adapting to new contexts; as a location, it still overlapped Hispania/lberia. Pierre Guichard writes that, "it shows, more or less explicitly, a way for the authorities to impose a new identity; a radical break with the past of the realm." ${ }^{408}$ Pedro Damián Cano argues that the terminology worked by
quickly designating the territory formerly known as Hispania, with a new
political, social and religious conception where the Islamic element would predominate. ${ }^{409}$

Different from Iberia or Hispania, the geographic borders of al-Andalus would change during the entire history of Muslim presence in the peninsula. Pedro Chalmeta argues that given the geographical fluidity of the term, it is more appropriately used as a socio-cultural rather than a politico-territorial term. ${ }^{410}$ It may be supposed that, in terms of language, a reaction to the idea of "al-Andalus" as a rupture from Islam was reverting to the Visigothic past after the Reconquista. Like the way the term "al-Andalus" was used to designate rupture after 711 , reverting to the language of Visigothic legacy after the fall of the Kingdom of Granada and using the term "Spain" designates another rupture: Reconquista vanquishes al-Andalus. These are examples of the ways language can breach, span, unify, or prevent otherness, or solely allow for it.

The history of al-Andalus was tied to the broader history of the expansive Islamic world in the Middle Ages. Al-Andalus was the westernmost boundary of medieval Islamic rule, and as such was connected to North Africa and the Muslim world of the time.

[^106]410 Pedro Chalmeta, Invasión e islamización, 27.

Although al-Andalus was the remote western outpost of Islam, over time it was affected by events in the Islamic world, such as the rise of the Abbasids and Fatimids, the Berber kingdoms in northwest Africa, and later the Ottoman Empire. Whereas Iberia or Hispania ties the history of this peninsula to its Celtic, Graeco-Roman, and Visigothic past, alAndalus ties the history of the peninsula to that of the Islamic world.

The ideas or myths, depending on the point of view, of Spain, Spanish, Iberia, Hispanic, al-Andalus, and (Visi)Gothic continuity are all examples of discourses that have functioned across centuries. Moreover, even though they have been discourses, not fact or reality, they have guided agents in action through the centuries, and have impacted specific communities or supplanted other competing discourses; functioning similarly are the way various groups in the peninsula are "named." Their power has lain in their persistence, but also in their conflation with the reality which they purport to represent. These ideas represent examples of a conscious use of language within a binary matrix, whether of continuity or rupture.

The geographic ideas presented above are not inclusive of any diversity (or difference) found within the space encompassed by those terms. Similarly, al-Andalus poses a challenge of being more suited as a politico-geographic term than equated to the analogous ones: Spain, Iberia, or Hispania. It is easy for the ideas of Spain, Spanish, Iberia, or Hispania to be devoid of anything related to Jewish or Muslim populations and their descendants; the same is not true for al-Andalus, specifically related to Muslims in the peninsula.

Yet, the history of medieval and early-modern Spain must deal with the longstanding presence of Jews and Muslims, as well as Christians, in the same land, and with all as native and not alien populations to the peninsula. Therefore, the discursive quality of interaction, interconnectedness, influence, encounter, and penetration between these various communities is an unavoidable subject of study and concern. As mentioned before, two major approaches to the study of this interaction-interconnectedness and encounter, or lack thereof—are the lenses of Convivencia and Reconquista: tolerance versus animosity, as well as mutual influence, if any. ${ }^{411}$ Both ultimately try to present a

[^107]picture of the quality of interaction between Muslims, Christians, and Jews, and later between Christians and other new Christians of the Jews or of the Moors-including the underlying shift from inter- to intra-dynamics. To a lesser extent, both have also been applied to the interaction between the Spanish, indigenous peoples, Africans, and those of mixed parentage across the Atlantic. Both lenses rely on analogous matrices and the maintaining of distinct categories of study (based on religious lineage and otherness, increasingly conflated with ethnicity/race), regardless of baptism (or shifts or mixing or hybridity). The tendency is to (re)inscribe the bi/tripartite matrix to the emerging configurations.

Américo Castro was responsible for the idea of Convivencia, the idea of coexistence of Jews, Muslims, and Christians when all three religions were present in the peninsula. Américo Castro was deeply impacted by the Spanish Civil War ${ }^{412}$ and sought to understand how such a terrible and brutal event could occur. ${ }^{413}$ Castro's historical answer extolled the contributions of Muslims and their tolerance in the peninsula during the medieval period, as well as Muslim influence in Spain and Spanish society. ${ }^{414}$ Américo Castro attributed this time of co-existence to the Qur'anic doctrine of tolerance of the 'Ahl al-Kitab (people of the book), ${ }^{415}$ the rise of intolerance to Christians' inability to

[^108]accept the presence of other beliefs, ${ }^{416}$ thus, arguing that the rise of intolerance happened when "religion and nation confused their boundaries." 417

Geographically, the Convivencia point of view is oriented from south to north. This view acknowledges the history of the peninsula as connected to North Africa and the broader Islamic world. In Convivencia although members of the three religions interacted (tripartite matrix), their respective religious spheres remained distinct; their otherness was religious. If Convivencia is used after 1391 or 1492/97 and then after 1501, the lens requires the (re)inscription of difference after baptism for the bi/tripartite separation of groups to be maintained, or to account for the proliferation of categories of (suspect) Christians different from old Christian. Orthodoxy began to be defined by lineage rather than right-belief. By this is meant, for example, that Christians of Jewish descent are still categorized within the "Jewish umbrella."

Convivencia relates to the interaction and mutual influence of various groups. There tends to be a contrast between the productive tension found in the interactions of three religiously other communities, to one another, in the medieval period and its breakdown beginning in the fifteenth century and traced throughout the sixteenth century. ${ }^{418}$ Américo Castro suggested that the idea of coexistence was at the root of the social system that existed in the region. Castro recognized that there were "irregularities and vicissitudes in the practical realization of that mode of collective existence" but insisted that these did not destroy the existence of the idea nor the common life and inter-

[^109]dependence they shared. ${ }^{419}$ Castro called it an "unstable equilibrium of the three castes";420 "castes" is (re)inscribed religious otherness. Each group, defined by religious affiliation, also had a "consciousness of lineage" or caste;421 this consciousness remained after baptism and thus put a limit on the extent of their conversion. Yet, was this "consciousness" about a type of Iberianness or Spanishness, an indelible religious identity or otherness, or about blood (race or ethnicity)? For Claudio Sánchez Albornoz, Américo Castro was incorrect in his division of peoples into castes; he argued for classes instead. ${ }^{422}$ The stance taken here is that this is a place where the religious matrix (boundary) was conflated historiographically with a constructed racial or ethnic boundary, which cannot be proven to have existed. Put differently, "consciousness of lineage" was defined by religious affiliation and equated with an eventual full racialization of religion. And, given this case, the parallel racial or ethnic lineages become co-terminus with the epidermis (as Claudio Sánchez Albornoz's phrase "dissimilar superstructures" suggests). ${ }^{423}$

Américo Castro saw all three castes as contributing to the development of Spain and Spanishness. Countering the immutability—lack of change by anything Islamic or Jewish—of the Spaniard posited by Claudio Sánchez Albornoz and others, Castro countered with the example of language. Castro wrote:

The effect of language on the process by which collective life is constantly being made testified to the impossibility of imagining the past as a rocklike foundation upon which there gradually settled the successive waves of human beings speaking different languages who came to the Peninsula. ${ }^{424}$

[^110]Castro continued by reiterating that with every successive wave of migrations Spaniards are "different from everything that had preceded," thus, changeable. ${ }^{425}$ Sánchez Albornoz countered with a warning about "disproportionate conclusions regarding the vital and psychological impact of the Islamic in the Spanish." ${ }^{426}$

The idea of Convivencia has been used well beyond the meaning(s) given by
Américo Castro and has become associated not only with living together, but with an idyllic tolerance. ${ }^{427}$ J. N. Hillgarth argues that Castro's Convivencia
meant more than the physical coexistence of communities and peoples of different religions; it meant rather the combative but often also productive tension between these groups. ${ }^{428}$

Furthermore, rather than equate it solely with tolerance, Castro and others use Convivencia to express that
'Spain is different' from the rest of Latin Christendom, its civilization the product of a unique religious and cultural frontier that brought Muslims, Christians, and Jews together in close contact with one another. ${ }^{429}$

In opposition to negative views, Convivencia helps to construct an image of medieval

## Spain as

diverse, multicultural and plural society, where the three cultures-the Christian, the Muslim, and the Jewish-co-existed in relative harmony, showing an unbelievable mutual toleration and understanding at that time unknown beyond the Pyrenees. ${ }^{430}$

This was a view criticized by Francisco García Fitz as idyllic, and the extolling of Muslim tolerance, given that the members of all three religions did not enjoy equality under

[^111]any of the configurations; these were non-equal Venn diagrams and hierarchies. Thus, García Fitz argues that medieval Convivencia is a myth, a constructed discourse; rather than symbiosis, there was antibiosis; ${ }^{431}$ the interactions between the religious communities were never based on equality, but always on a hierarchy. ${ }^{432}$ Thus, "coexistence was on a plane of undeniable inequality." ${ }^{433}$ Similarly, Joseph Pérez writes:

The three religions, Muslim, Christian, and Jewish, were never comparable in terms of dignity or status. Inasmuch as Muslims, like Christians, claimed to possess the revealed (one and only) truth, a truth exclusive of others, no mutual respect was possible between them. As for peninsular Jews, both Muslims and Christians felt an identical contempt for it. ${ }^{434}$

Derek W. Lomax, specifically referring to Jews and Christians under Muslim rule, describes a "discriminatory tolerance." ${ }^{335}$ Within Christian hegemony, the posited reality of inequality and hierarchy may be seen discursively in the proliferation of categories constructing and treating new Christians as suspect Christians.

As the quality of the interaction between members of the different faiths and castes is further problematized, the fact remains that the study of Spain cannot erase its Jewish and Muslim constitutive elements, and in narrating constitutive elements care must be taken not to narrate them as solely other (non-Spanish and non-Christian, for example). It is one thing to determine what those elements are/were and to differentiate them specifically as Jewish, Muslim, or Christian, quite another to determine what can be identified as Spanish or regional or shared, etc.

[^112]Reconquista, the antithetical idea to Convivencia, was advanced by Claudio Sánchez Albornoz. Sánchez Albornoz was a proponent of the meta-view which posited a continual resistance and crusade against the invading Muslim peoples and Islamic religion from the Battle of Covadonga in 722 to the fall of the Nasrid Kingdom of Granada in 1492. ${ }^{436}$ For Sánchez Albornoz Reconquista went hand in hand with repopulation. This view is often reinforced by the elements included in the idea of the so-called "Gothic Myth" presented above, or Reconquista vanquishing al-Andalus discursively and geographically. Sánchez Albornoz unequivocally advocated for "the reconquista [as] the key to the History of Spain." ${ }^{437}$ Similarly, José Antonio Maravall Casesnoves saw the idea of Reconquista as defining the Spanish Middle Ages. ${ }^{438}$ Geographically, the Reconquista and repopulation historiography is primarily in the northern part of the peninsula and focuses on the Christian kingdoms and their progress south, including the repopulation of newly (re)conquered areas. This view is also oriented toward Europe and shows little or no concern for the historical connections to North Africa and the Islamic world.

From the Reconquista point of view, the imagined 1492 date (and related $1501 / 1520$ s and 1609-14) also marked the return to the religious and political "unification" of the peninsula or at the very least a rupture from the Islamic interlude. ${ }^{439}$ The Reconquista lens suggests unabated persecution, real and discursive, of "minority"

[^113]religious and/or ethnic communities, even the created other. José Antonio Maravall Casesnoves described the idea of Reconquista as follows:
shortly after the entrance of the Arabs a resistance movement resolves as a plan of political action to expel those new foreign elements; an action plan which was maintained until its completion eight centuries later. ${ }^{440}$

Along with an occidental and European orientation, Claudio Sánchez Albornoz' views on the history of Spain tie him to many historians, including Américo Castro, whom support the idea of the uniqueness of Spain. ${ }^{441}$

Claudio Sánchez Albornoz wrote España, un enigma histórico as a response to Américo Castro's España en su Historia. ${ }^{442}$ One of Sánchez Albornoz' aims was to combat Castro's hebrewfilia and semiticizing history of Spain; such a project requires Europeanization and Occidentalization. ${ }^{443}$ Sánchez Albornoz aimed to fight the "absurd and stupid theory that what is Spanish is subsequent to $711 .{ }^{444}$ According to Sánchez

## Albornoz, Castro

passionately threw himself [in]to demonstrat[ing] that all in Spain is the result of the marvelous overflow of the Arabic-Hebrew tide over the peninsular lands.

Sánchez Albornoz confronted this by arguing that "the Spain prior to the Arab invasion is for [him] part of the making of the Hispanic structure of [Spanish] life." ${ }^{445}$ Alain Milhou

[^114]argues that this overarching denial of any Muslim or Jewish influence in defining Spain and its people has been part of a broader program of the desemitization of Spain. ${ }^{466}$

The Reconquista lens offers a view about the quality of interaction between the peoples of different faiths which was one of strife and animosity. Américo Castro argued that Spain could not be blind to itself and "deny or ignore the existence of those unique forms of living that arose from eight centuries of coexistence" between the three castes: Christians, Muslims, and Jews. ${ }^{447}$ Yet, Claudio Sánchez Albornoz was adamant about not overestimating the Arab and Hebrew heritages. ${ }^{448}$ Sánchez Albornoz insisted that their influence or legacy might have been outward ("dissimilar superstructure"), but it did not impact the essence of Spain and its people. This epidermic claim may be an assertion that the "darker" image of "Spain" was attributed to the Muslim or Jewish heritage as, for example, perpetuated by the so-called Black Legend. ${ }^{449}$

In making an epidermic claim, Claudio Sánchez Albornoz conflated religion with an idea of race or ethnicity (difference) that cannot be proven, while at the same time perpetuating the idea of religion as indelible yet, although an indelibility that was nonpenetrable or influential to Christian "co-nationals." Put differently, because religion was racialized to make it indelible, this meant that complete conversion to Christianity was impossible and a challenge to baptism, thus justifying the expulsions of the baptized descendants of Muslims; while at the same making sure that the Islamic religion had no influence on Spanish identity.

This was a process. This racialization or racialist turn was a (re)inscription into the normative (previous) religious matrix of difference: bi/tripartite. It is no different than Américo Castro's separation and conflation of castes based on religious otherness. This is one of the reasons the helches incident discussed in Chapter 1 (un)intentionally became part of the processes of making religion indelible, and became a contributing factor for the discursive justifications of the expulsions a century later. In making the religious otherness

[^115]merely superficial (a "superstructure" rather than the essence of a person), as Claudio Sánchez Albornoz argues there seems to be dissatisfaction and lack of clarity regarding the relationship of religion to race or ethnicity in the fifteenth through seventeenth centuries, and regarding whether one could change one's religion. Yet this is something that can be analyzed through noting changes in language usage and meaning.

Similar to the discourses of the so-called Gothic Myth, the idea of Reconquista has its seeds in medieval chronicles. ${ }^{450}$ Asturians tracing their lineage to the Visigoths contributed to their aim of "unifying" the peninsula, as the Visigoths had done before them. Joseph F. O'Callaghan summarizes it this way:

Spain may not have been reconquered by the descendants of the Visigoths, but it certainly was reconquered by the Christians, who again and again expressed their belief [that] the recovery of Spain from Muslim hands was their ultimate objective. ${ }^{451}$

Thus, for Joseph F. O'Callaghan and other historians, the idea of Reconquista became an organizing principle and structure for the history of "Spain."

For Claudio Sánchez Albornoz Reconquista and repopulation went hand in hand and had two stages: before 1085 and after. ${ }^{452}$ For Sánchez Albornoz, notwithstanding the importance of the Reconquista, the repopulation that occurred after each victory was (almost) as significant. Sánchez Albornoz posited that the Duero valley was strategically depopulated (in the mid-eighth century) to create a buffer zone between the Kingdom of Asturias and Muslim-controlled lands. Sánchez Albornoz then argued that " $[\mathrm{t}]$ he radical repopulation" was indicative of the "intensity of depopulation." ${ }^{453}$ Sánchez Albornoz suggested that the repopulation that took place from 850 to 1212 was what helped to build the kingdoms of Castile and León, and especially the basis for the ascendancy of Castile. Furthermore, during these centuries of repopulation, Spain was forged. ${ }^{454}$ Again, these were powerful discourses and ideas that had historical impact.

[^116]Both lenses of Convivencia and Reconquista rely on a similar idea of "Spain," one whose primary matrix of study (tripartite) is that of the division along lines of religious otherness, Christians, Muslims, and Jews being religiously different from one another. This archetypal scheme makes sense given the longstanding presence in the peninsula of members of the three religions. Yet, insisting on religious otherness as primary requires the (re)inscription when there were changes in religion by persons or communities to maintain these "distinct" groups and difference, making difficult to find that which is not defined by religion. The baptism of Jews and Muslims erased the very religious boundaries (or otherness) that had existed for centuries and around which medieval peninsular society had in many ways been built (inter-). Yet, the Christian descendants of Muslims and Jews were controlled as a distinct category, suspect, within Christianity (intra-). This then had as an eventual consequence the racialization or racialist turn of religion, and made difference indelible, in this case religious difference.

Similar to the issues of regionalism and chronology brought up earlier, Convivencia and Reconquista as general models are difficult to apply to more specific foci; both models fail to capture completely the reality of interaction and influence between members of the three religions for all timeframes and locations. Each configuration, region, and timeframe could be sketched as a different Venn diagram with three spheres of different sizes, at times only two, and with varying degrees of interconnectedness, penetration, or influence depending on the historiographical point of view regarding the level of toleration or animosity, which in turn defines the quality of interaction. The lens of Convivencia may be best suited for places removed from the frontier (south); the lens of Reconquista, on the other hand, may be best suited for the study of the borderlands or frontier between the Muslim and Christian realms-while keeping in mind that the buffer region was progressively moving south and eventually encroached on the regions where Convivencia had been or would re-emerge under a different rule. ${ }^{455}$

In the absence of sufficient documentary evidence for the actual and relative Christian, Jewish, and Muslim populations, only general assertions can be made regarding the relative strength of the communities defined by religion under various configurations,

[^117]regions, and times. In general, if Jews were present in a region, they were the smallest group. At times, there was minority-Christian or -Muslim rule of a majority population of the other religion. ${ }^{456}$ At other times, Christians outnumbered Muslims in Christiancontrolled lands, and Muslims outnumbered Christians in Muslim-controlled lands. Finally, in times of heightened repression, the population was mostly of one religion (always Muslim or Christian). ${ }^{457}$

As seen in the section on the so-called "Gothic Myth," the earliest documented reference to the idea of Reconquista appeared in the Kingdom of Asturias, in the ninth century, which was not under Muslim rule; the idea of Reconquista for the Kingdom of Aragón came later. ${ }^{458}$ Moreover, from 722 through 1085 much of the northern Christian realms did not have a Muslim population to contend with, thus Convivencia seems anachronistic, given the small number of Jews in those realms. Similarly, at times there were Muslim interests in the north that coincided with Christian interests against the Umayyads, so there were strategic alliances that crossed religious boundaries. ${ }^{459}$

The singular focus of the north was not always Reconquista. Areas where there were members of all three religions, all under Muslim rule, were not always impacted first and foremost by the pressures of the Reconquista, especially if these were at a distance from the contested frontier. Interactions, positive or negative, across religions are not the only ways to understand the history of the peninsula, and are often blind to other forms of interactions and intersection of a common life.

For Américo Castro and Claudio Sánchez Albornoz, among others, the religious lens or religious otherness is paramount in the study of the history of Spain. For both, and as for other historians, these communities remained wholly distinct and separate, even after baptism, meaning they were immutable and inassimilable, and thus non-Spanish and non-Christian. Castro describes the history of these communities as being "parallel and synchronic." ${ }^{460}$ None of these scholars could conceive of any true conversions to

[^118]Christianity from members of the Jewish or Muslim communities, and in this are aligned with the most prevalent historiographical point of view. ${ }^{461}$ Therefore, that the Jewish and Muslim communities were purportedly "unyielding race[s]" (a discursive construction) required and justified their expulsions. ${ }^{462}$ Castro seemed to want it both ways-seeing Muslim and Jewish influence in the formation of Spain and Spanishness while at the same time keeping people and groups separate. Although from a different point of view, this is the same conclusion Sánchez Albornoz reached.

A problem in using either meta-narrative of Convivencia or Reconquista is that they both rely on static-group boundaries based on distinctiveness of religion or religious otherness and are often blind to anything outside of religion, that which could be held in common, such as the unremarked upon daily life, or even allowing for changes in religion. For example, that which is "inherently" Spanish (customs that are not necessarily religious) was not created in the religious sphere, since it was precisely there that there was the least amount of interaction and influence. People of different religions interacted with one another, but not in churches, synagogues, or mosques, but in the market, or legal system, or court. There were instances of inter-religious dialogue, but these did not create anything uniquely religiously Spanish, long-lasting, or to put it differently, a "fourth" religion or syncretism (religious traditions or practices uniquely peninsular). ${ }^{463}$ The static matrix misses the creative moment(s) of "cultural production" as posited by Homi K. Bhabha and the application (if any) of this creative moment in the area of change from one religion to another, or even the impact of baptism in the realms of society and religion.

The level of interaction between the members of the three religions was not such that it erased the boundaries between the religions or remove religious otherness, nor was it so exclusive that the crossing of boundaries was always completely prohibited or impossible. Social and religious boundaries were important both for intra-group cohesion and even survival, as well as for norms of inter-group interaction. Whereas the interaction between religious groups or persons of different religions posed a challenge to the other even including violence, such interaction also posed a challenge to the self. For example,

[^119]Jonathan Ray writes that "[f]or Jewish spiritual and communal leaders, at least, the real problem was not the exclusion but rather the acceptance of Jews." ${ }^{464}$

Anxiety can be surmised in primary texts regarding the possibility of boundary crossing, of assimilation or becoming like the other, of acculturation, of conversion. ${ }^{465}$ From the anxiety over conversion to Islam in ninth-century Córdoba, ${ }^{466}$ to the anxiety over the newly converted to Christianity in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, interaction between persons of different religions posed challenges to social cohesion and religious identity. Furthermore, in a society where taxation and prosecution of certain offenses could be based on a person's religious group, a change in religion would have financial and legal repercussions, not only religious ones. ${ }^{467}$

The religious boundaries between people and groups did not prevent interactions, but helped to control and maintain them. Outside of the religious sphere, or of sacred spaces, there were opportunities of interaction and "socio-cultural production" as something distinctively "Iberian" or "Spanish" ("Andalusian") rather than specifically Jewish, Christian, or Muslim. This is to say that there was "socio-cultural production" beyond the religious sphere that was shared by persons across different religions (regardless of levels of adherence) and which could be identified as uniquely regional (or broadly Spanish) and would be different from other regions whether Christian or Muslim.

[^120]${ }^{467}$ Regarding Jews, see Jonathan Ray, "Beyond Tolerance and Persecution," 8-9.

Often, as explored by Barbara Fuchs, travelers could identify these "socio-cultural elements" or customs in Spain that were not present in other areas like England, Rome, etc. ${ }^{468}$ For example, Francisco Núñez Muley argued in his Memorandum that the manner of dress in Granada was different from other Muslim countries, thus making the manner of dress Granadan rather than Islamic. ${ }^{469}$

In moving away from the historiographical poles of Convivencia and Reconquista it can be apparent that when there were adherents of the three religions, the place of potential tension was not in religion, but in quotidian life as a whole. Since the quotidian is often unremarkable to the people living it, some aspects of it can be identified by what was remarked upon by outsiders, including travelers. Outsiders often saw (or constructed) the Spanish quotidian as exotic and remarked upon it in that way. Also, there were regional outsiders. When Castilians came to Granada (or New Spain) they experienced what they saw as different and unorthodox, and imposed their own practices and regional culture. For example, the Castilian experience outside of Granada was of acculturated Muslims and Jews; before the final conquest of the Nasrid Kingdom of Granada what had grown in the rest of the peninsula was increasingly identifiable as Spanish, not only Christian Castilian, and this included contributions from Jews and Muslims living in Christian realms. This meant that Castilians did not see their regional practices as different until they encountered different regional practices in Granada; or their practices were identified as different by outsiders or travelers.

In short, within the peninsula there were unavoidable regional differences, but these differences when seen from beyond the Pyrenees were flattened or even erased, and Spain and its people were constructed and understood as all being the same: other and exotic. Although this discourse is problematic, it can show that the internal difference was not as drastic or visible (external or epidermic) as perceived by the internal forces trying to homogenize all the realms under the same rule, and were not as different as any existing differences (perhaps also constructed) with other outside groups. This is where the transAtlantic contrast becomes useful: knowing that greater epidermic difference existed between Amerindians and Spaniards shows that the difference between Granadans and

[^121]others in the peninsula was lesser. Therefore, eventually the perceived or constructed epidermic difference between Spain and the rest of Europe must also be re-evaluated.

In some ways, the Reconquista lens, and the idea of Visigothic continuity (the socalled Gothic Myth) are interrelated, and developed as reactions to other external and competing views or ideas of "Spain" and its people, including the idea of Convivencia and the discourse of the so-called Black Legend. Their reactive parts become a historiography that obscures the historical. One of the myths about Spain and its people is the discourse that Spaniards have been morally and racially darker than others in Europe and the British Isles—this idea and discourse has been termed the "Black Legend." The internal reaction to this outside view has been at times to "whiten" (Gothic Myth) Spaniards by getting rid of the perceived Jewish and Muslim taint (Reconquista), which supposedly makes them "darker" because Muslims and Jews were supposedly deemed "darker"; or by making the history of Spain more benevolent (Convivencia) and less Oriental or exotic (Europeanizing). ${ }^{470}$ At each discursive iteration of the so-called Black Legend, the discursive reaction for the idea of "Spain" has been the (re)assertion of its (Gothic and "white") identity and the excision of the perceived Jewish and Muslim elements (whether present or not). One reason for this was that the imperial claim relied on the claim of internal purity and Gothic heritage, and therefore was in competition with the Orientalizing and exotic views and ideas of "Spain," and the place of its Arab-Berber-Muslim-Jewish constitutive elements.

More specifically, the discourses of the "Black Legend" are the dark, sometimes racial, language used to describe Spain and Spaniards. In these discourses, competing countries, and empires, as well as historians, have characterized and repeatedly asserted that Spain and Spaniards have been morally darker or blacker and racially other (exotic); have been a persecuting society: repressive, brutal, and backward. ${ }^{471}$ Those competing

[^122]and asserting these claims have put themselves in the discursive position of being morally and racially "whiter": a competing hierarchy. The so-called Black Legend has also been fueled by the work of the Inquisition as a mechanism of control of "minority"-Christian communities-a type of discursive minoritization process. The historical basis for the discursive morally-darker image and idea of "Spain" is summarized by Margaret R. Greer in the following way:

The Black Legend owes its own genesis to three simultaneous events: the expulsion of the Moor and Jews from the Iberian Peninsula; the so-called discovery of America and the domination and exploitation of Indians and African slaves; and the privileged position in which Christianity found itself to create a classification in which Christians were one of the groups classified and, simultaneously, possessors of the privileged discourse that created the classification. ${ }^{472}$

The "Black Legend" as a phrase has existed since the early-twentieth century and was coined by Julián Juderías in a 1913 essay. ${ }^{473}$ Yet the attitude, discourse, and texts about the so-called Black Legend can be traced to the fifteenth century, and through a core of materials from the second half of the sixteenth century into the seventeenth. There have been subsequent iterations of the so-called Black Legend, as other empires have tried to differentiate themselves from imperial Spain. The latest iteration of these was the United States in the century leading up to the Spanish-American War, and continuing to this day. ${ }^{474}$ Walter D. Mignolo summarizes the trajectory and function of the discourses of the "Black Legend" as
the twentieth-century name for a narrative that chastises Castilians for the brutality they committed in the New World [against Amerindians], a narrative told from the perspective of England and dating back to the reign of Elizabeth I. ${ }^{475}$

[^123][^124]For the English, Dutch, and French (and later the United States) this served as an opportunity to "belatedly contest...Spanish imperial dominance in the Americas," and to differentiate Spain from Enlightenment Empires. ${ }^{476}$

The continued use of the discursive veneer of the "Black Legend" has also been a way to deny Spain, and anything touched by Spain, any inheritance of "whiteness." María de Guzmán argues that the vestiges of the so-called Black Legend also have ample repercussions in the study of the construction of whiteness (self) in opposition to darkness (other, in this case Spain). For the discourses of the "Black Legend" to be continually repeated, any time there has been a claim by a group to be the inheritors of whiteness (Gothic), all other prior inheritors of whiteness must be darkened.

The discursive processes attributed to the insidious "Black Legend" are interwoven with Orientalism: the perception or construction of the ideas of "Spain" and "Spaniards" as indeed racially exotic (other) and different from other Europeans. ${ }^{477}$ With respect to Europe, Spain in its "liminal position vis-à-vis Europe" was a nation that was a "racial and religious other." ${ }^{478}$ Barbara Fuchs notes,
[e]ven as Spain goes to great pains to contain the influence of al-Andalus by racializing and othering conversos and moriscos... rival European states busily construct Spain as precisely the racial other of Europe. ${ }^{479}$

Therefore, no matter the Spanish insistence on the idea that they are heirs of the Visigoths (whiteness), other imperial powers repeatedly and deliberately contest this inheritance by representing Spain as "oriental," in an effort to combat its imperial and cultural domination over other emerging European nations." ${ }^{480}$ Since the sixteenth century, any discursive attempt to "whiten" Spaniards (Spain) has been counteracted by a (re)assertion of a morally and racially "darker" external construction.

[^125]Sixteenth century intra-Spanish literature which articulated the internal conflict in Spain regarding the conquest of the Americas and Granada was used as evidence in the discourses of the "Black Legend" against Spain; part of the ideological struggle between countries (e.g. between England and Spain). ${ }^{481}$ This included Bartolomé de las Casas' Brevíssima relación de la destrucción de las Indias, published in 1552, and translated into French and Dutch in 1578 and into English in 1583. ${ }^{482}$ The ideological struggle was not identified in the translations themselves, but in the fact that they were translated and commented upon:

In their prefaces and notes the editors or translators denounced Spanish cruelty to the Indians, drew analogies between the plight of the Indians and the condition of European peoples under Spanish rule, and endorsed [Bartolomé de] las Casas' doctrines of peaceful conversion. ${ }^{483}$

Moreover, the discourse of the so-called Black Legend was the work of propagandists.
For example, Benjamin Keen notes that in a Dutch translation of Bartolomé de las Casas,

[^126]the propagandist aim of the book was clearly to promote Dutch unity and fighting spirit by showing the merciless, unjust nature of an enemy who committed such great atrocities in both the Old and the New World. ${ }^{484}$

The discursive and ideological struggle between competing nascent empires, and their subject colonies, has aimed to marginalize Spain from Europe and England, and most recently from the United States, and has ended up reifying its history (and people) as solely exotic, exceptional, and other. Related historiographically has been the transfer of the reaction to that external othering to the "minority" Christian communities in the peninsula: and internal, at the very least discursive, othering or minoritization processes.

As Barbara Fuchs notes, the discourses of the "Black Legend" are parts of "[e]fforts to render Spain African...with profound consequences for the marginalization of Spain within Europe." ${ }^{485}$ Rendering "Spain African" was aided by the trans-Atlantic sub-Saharan African slave trade, and the increasing conflation of Muslims with Africa, thus Islam and "blackness," which included changes in the usage of terms like "moro." ${ }^{486}$ While there are historians who want to exalt the uniqueness of the history of Spain, they often do not want to do this at the expense of not being part of Europe: they approach it with a Europeanizing gaze.

History or existing evidence does not support "Spaniards" being more racially different from others in Europe, or Spaniards being any more or less repressive in their treatment of Amerindians, Slaves, Protestants, etc., than other representatives of other empires dealing with the same issues. This is not an apology for Spaniards' methods of conquest and evangelization, but to place the historical discursive reaction in its context and proportion. ${ }^{487}$ Salvador de Madariaga explains the reasons to produce the discourses of the "Black Legend" in the following way:

[^127]Love of tribe made it necessary for England, France and Holland to blacken Spain; for the richest and most majestic empire the world had ever seen was for three hundred years the quarry out of which England, France and Holland built their own. These three nations had to justify themselves. God was still in the past, the Father of the tribe, stern and angry at times, Men could not bear the burden of guilt. They endeavored to hoodwink God the Father by shoving the burden on to some absent-minded brother. Spain had to be wrong so that France, Holland and England, and later the United States could be right. ${ }^{488}$

The discourses of the so-called Black Legend were not only ideological but also religious; England depicted itself as morally better than Spain, and Protestants as better than Catholics.

The Inquisition-the defender of Catholicism and false arbiter of heresybecame in England's propaganda wars-or Black Legend-the emblem of Spain's moral and political degeneracy. 489

The construction of some historical Christian communities in the peninsula as other—eventually religiously and ethnically or racially, and thus, non-Christian and nonSpanish—was one of the internal reactions to the discourses of the "Black Legend." Similarly, the so-called Gothic Myth as articulated in the nineteenth and early-twentieth century was a reaction to the relentless construction of Spain as exotic (other and non"white") even after the Spanish had "gotten rid of" the Jewish and Muslim stains.

This can be seen in nineteenth-century iconic statements such as: Alexandre Dumas' (1802-1870) insistence that "Africa begins at the Pyrenees," ${ }^{490}$ or Victor Hugo's (1802-1885) statement that "Spain is half African, Africa is half Asian," ${ }^{491}$ or Alfred de Vigny's (1797-1863) declaration that "a Spaniard is an Oriental, he is a Catholic Turk, his

[^128]blood either languishes or boils, he is a slave to indolence, ardor, cruelty." ${ }^{492}$ This last example expresses the intersection of the discourse of the so-called Black Legend in ideological and racial senses, as well as in interrelated Orientalism. This is important because it is also on the heels of these characterizations that ideas of Reconquista and Convivencia were developed; in themselves reactions and counter-currents.

As noted, the most recent iteration of the discourses of the "Black Legend" has been the imperial-ideological struggle, since the nineteenth century, between the United States and Spain. María de Guzmán summarizes this in the following way,

Anglo-Americans created a fantasy of racial purity through the representation of Spaniards as figures of morally blackened alien whiteness or offwhiteness and doomed hybridity. ${ }^{493}$

Anglo-Americans ${ }^{494}$ made themselves the rightful heirs of the Goths, and Spain reacted against this claim. Again, external claims of Spain as mixed or hybrid or exotic have repeatedly been met with internal claims of purity and the further excising of perceived impurities and taintedness. Each of the iterations may indeed have contributed to adding layers of historiographical obfuscation, or confusing the discourses for reality, if any, of difference.

María de Guzmán shows how Anglo-American identity has been constructed vis-àvis a counter-construction of Spain and Spanishness. The construction of Anglo-American ethnicity has been "very much dependent on both an antagonistic and exoticizing relation with Spain and 'Spanishness." 495 De Guzmán continues by stating that Anglo-Americans were constructed as having the "right kind' of whiteness in contradistinction to figures of alien whiteness, or, if you will, off-whiteness, to be left out of the ideal body politic,"496 similar to persons of Muslim or Jewish descent being deemed alien and thus non-Spanish. Furthermore, she shows how

[^129]the darkness and blackness assigned to the figure of the Spaniard was not only a religious, ethical, and historical evaluation, but increasingly became a racial typology as well. ${ }^{497}$

Supposedly, the long-standing presence of Jews and Muslims in the peninsula fueled the racial-ethnic "darkening" of the Spaniard. This implies and perpetuates the idea that the religious otherness of Jews and Muslims was indelible, and was a difference that was seen in the body, specifically the skin. As posited, this indelibility of the inherent religious otherness of these communities was itself a challenge to the actual possibility of conversion and more narrowly to the indelibility of the rite of baptism. The helches incident may in fact have foreshadowed the failure of conversion (theologically, not of baptism) and thus justifying the need for the expulsions at the beginning of the seventeenth century.

The historiographical discursive reaction by some in Spain was two-fold: to construct baptized descendants of Jews and Muslims as indeed other; and to disavow any connection with its Jewish or Muslim past by removing the (perceived) impure elements that signified this past. As is now understood, in the sixteenth century the constitutive elements of an emerging Spanish identity included views of self, the reaction to views from outsiders, as well as its own internal reality of self. Therefore, shedding light on the discursive elements of the "Black Legend" as elements of a powerful myth provides a means by which to understand some of the many interrelated dynamics affecting the nascent Spanish nation and empire in the sixteenth century. Spain's imperial and state claims were challenged by other emerging states who sought to differentiate and distance themselves from Spain and its imperial claims.

Methodologically speaking, understanding the pervasiveness of the discursive elements of the so-called Black Legend leads to uncovering history that has been constructed and/or erased at various points in the historiographical endeavor. Although reactions were real, in that real people were othered and expelled, much of it remained on

[^130]the level of discourse, meaning that just because they were written of as different (e.g. blacker) it did not mean that they were in fact different or as different as the discourse indicates. In some historiography, this discursive difference has indeed been factual. Yet, the so-called Black Legend has been a discursive strategy, and although its genesis may be found in historical fact and texts, it has remained and has been reiterated in the rhetorical realm; its insidiousness has been in its reification.

Although there is increasing acknowledgement of the discourses of the "Black Legend" and it has even been noted in some studies that have to do with the communities of the baptized descendants of Muslims, it has not been seen as a discursive phenomenon with implications in the study of these communities or as having affected these peninsular communities. None of the ideas or myths presented above serve as a neat lens through which to study the communities of the baptized descendants of Muslims in the peninsula and to understand the discursive justifications of their expulsions. Yet, awareness of these ideas is important because the study of these communities is overshadowed by all the very same ideas. Historically, these communities were excised in part to allow for Spain to counter the external claim to its supposed blackness. The baptized descendants of Muslims were not discursively allowed to be part of the idea of "Gothic" inheritance. The baptized descendants of Muslims were also the very descendants of those that the ideology of the Reconquista sought to conquer. The fact that these communities were ultimately constructed as non-Christian and non-Spanish may be evidence of the demise of Convivencia.

### 2.2 Traditional approaches

The above historiographical presentation with associated myths-the "one, eternal Spain" including the so-called Gothic Myth, the lenses of Convivencia and Reconquista, and the insidious elements of the so-called Black Legend-may be "meta" approaches or methodologies associated with the historical study of "Spain" and its various subjects in the last century. These "meta" approaches not only responded to meta-theories being developed by other historians and new schools of thought, but also fit into the schema of history as accessible and knowable, as well as capable of being presented objectively by
the historian. ${ }^{498}$ This meshes with the Enlightenment and Modernity ideas that history can be objectively and completely accessed by the historian, and that truth is discoverable (as well as its structure) and knowable so long as proper methods were used. Modernity's historical narrative was progressive, teleological, transcendent, and Eurocentric; a narrative that was also static, flat, boxed, and uninteresting. The position taken for this thesis is that this purported objectivity is not possible in the historiographical endeavor; nor do historical texts present an objective picture of their subject matter.

In this section, there is a more specific presentation of the traditional and specific historiography and methodology regarding the study of the baptized descendants of Muslims in the sixteenth and early seventeenth century. Historians of "Spain" have "objectively" and "impartially" read the primary texts regarding the baptized descendants of Muslims and developed a narrative of this group as a homogenous community that did not truly convert or were, in fact, non-Christian; and, that this lack of true conversion was a factor in their expulsions from the peninsula, along with other (lesser) political pressures. This homogenous community was also foreign, thus, non-Spanish. "These communities" have been studied as "a community"; the choice here is to refer to the subject matter in the plural or at times as one community among many. To some historians, all Muslims who were baptized and their baptized descendants outwardly or publicly practiced Christianity, but privately and interiorly practiced Islam; thus, the idea of "crypto-Muslims."

The historical study of the so-called "moriscos" has followed many of the historiographical trends of the last hundred years or so, from positivist (mimesis) approaches where "historical evidence can be discovered, evaluated, and objectively constituted as facts" 499 (which included the positing of "meta" structures or narratives often using the tools of the social sciences), followed by an increased emphasis in cultural studies with more regional foci and expanded use of other types of sources. From this earlier era, the field gained knowledge of the contours of the history of these communities from the conquest of Granada to the baptism of whole communities to the internal displacement of the Granadan new Christians, and then the ultimate exile of many-but not abundant knowledge of any differences or nuance in the lived lives of members of

[^131]these communities. This historiography has continued to support the overwhelming view of this entire community as composed of Christians who were in fact non-Christian, but indeed Muslims. ${ }^{500}$

This homogenous view of these communities has been textually supported by the reading of sixteenth-century chronicles, seventeenth-century apologetic literature, and at the turn of the twentieth century through the study of inquisitorial records, and later in the twentieth century through the increased use of polemical literature. The discursive view of this community as a non-Christian "minority" community or communities dates to sixteenth-century chronicles, such as that of Luis del Mármol Carvajal (1520-1600). ${ }^{501}$ In some ways this may be seen as having a similar type of trajectory as the so-called Black Legend. Although Mármol Carvajal's narrative did not present a completely homogenous view of the entire community as solely inassimilable and Muslim, ${ }^{502}$ the seventeenthcentury apologetic literature of the expulsion quickly cemented this view which then has been repeated for close to four hundred years. The traditional view has been of a religiopolitical struggle, summarized by Trevor J. Dadson as
a widely held consensus regarding the two key issues of assimilation and expulsion, which was that in the more than a hundred years that passed between their forced conversion... and their eventual expulsion between 1609 and 1614 the Moriscos had made little or no attempt to assimilate to the majority Christian culture around them (that, in fact, they were inassimilable), and that this apparent obduracy made their expulsion both necessary and inevitable. ${ }^{503}$

Narratives about these "minority" communities (minoritization and othering) have revolved around the question of the "morisco problem." 504 The problem is described and defined as the permanence and retention of Islamic practices and beliefs by members of these communities, and thus lack of assimilation or acculturation, and therefore a narrative

[^132]of a community that was not loyal to the Crown. The so-called morisco problem also differed depending on the region and the relative proportion of the baptized descendants of Muslims to the rest of the population. (The "morisco problem" is also discussed in Chapter 4 when some Valencian primary texts are discussed and analyzed.)

Many narratives include as proof of the "morisco problem" a catalogue of Islamic practices and beliefs; these lists have been continually repeated and used in themselves as proof. ${ }^{505}$ In the seventeenth century the narratives were of an apologetic nature, to justify the expulsions, again with a view of these communities as crypto-Muslims, or secret heretics, or apostates: certainly, not as Christians. ${ }^{506}$ This image has been mostly reproduced without being questioned. Amalia García Pedraza calls this the reproduction of "robotic images." ${ }^{507}$ The stereotype of all baptized descendants of Muslims as indeed Muslims continues to be perpetuated, in part, because it fits in nicely with the way the interaction between Muslims and Christians in the peninsula at times has been explained as a "Clash of Civilizations" ${ }^{508}$ which echoes the more contextually specific Reconquista lens for Spain. ${ }^{509}$

Notwithstanding the historical "objective" and "impartial" trends of the nineteenth and early-twentieth century, conservative and liberal historians alike have continued to reach the same conclusion: the expulsion was of an irreducible minority-a community of non-Christians-since they never truly converted. The only nuance has been perhaps how they have answered whose fault was the lack of conversion. The liberal side blamed the church because the baptisms were forced, and evangelization and instruction was poor thus not helping members of these communities succeed in their conversion; the

[^133]conservative side blamed an entire community for willfully not converting. ${ }^{510}$ This starting point conflates problems of practice with those of belief or theology.

The myth of the inassimilable homogenous community has been normative. One of the foundations of this myth has been the contention that this homogenous community maintained part of its modus vivendi. ${ }^{511}$ This contention is now often refuted by the extensive use of the writings of Francisco Núñez Muley and his separation of regional practices from religious or Islamic practices. ${ }^{512}$ Yet, the few writings of Núñez Muley are far outweighed by the more numerous and negative texts about these communities.

At the end of the nineteenth century the same negative conclusions about the communities were reached through different avenues of research. Henry Charles Lea (1825-1909) was the first to extensively use Spanish inquisitorial records to develop a narrative for these communities. ${ }^{513}$ Henry Charles Lea, like Luis del Mármol Carvajal centuries earlier, recognized that these communities were not homogenous in their purported deficient Christianity, yet this contention was minimized and turned out not to be the focus or conclusion of his work. ${ }^{514}$ Lea's work became a standard reference for most of the twentieth century, especially since there were few other works focused on the religion or religious practices of members of these communities through the 1960s with the exception of Pedro Longás Bartibás' (1881-1968) La vida religiosa de los moriscos (1915), which shared orientalist interests (arabistas) with other scholars of the time in emphasizing the characteristics of these communities which tied them to Islam. ${ }^{515}$ These communities were then seen as being homogenously contiguous to Islam in the peninsula and were evaluated through an Islamic lens. ${ }^{516}$ Put differently, the Christian lens which sees these communities as one community and as non-Christian used as evidence the tropic

[^134]catalogue of Islamic practices; the Islamic lens which sees these communities as completely Muslim uses the same evidence. None of the proponents of either lens seems to acknowledge the discursive function of the lists and how they in fact matched or did not match up with the reality purported by the texts, that is, the lives lived versus the discursive lives. The research for this thesis supports the case against the homogenous view as completely non-Christian and as wholly crypto-Muslim.

After the 1950s there was an increased concern with the study of minority and marginalized groups. As such, these communities, including baptized descendants of Muslims, were of interest once again. From a Christian perspective, the negative view of these communities with respect to their religious life continued. Since the 1970s many studies have been thematic in nature, such as interest in the "Islamic" diaspora communities after 1609/14 in North Africa and other Muslim-controlled lands, as well as the "New World", ${ }^{517}$ aljamiado literature (Arabic philology), ${ }^{518}$ the Sacromonte Lead Texts, ${ }^{519}$ the church councils of 1554 and 1565, as well as other regional foci. As was posited for the Convivencia and Reconquista models, the "Clash of Civilizations" model as well as Arabist approaches also require the separation of communities in a bi/tripartite religious matrix. These models then cannot account for mestizaje or hybridization, and thus almost inevitably perpetuate homogenous and static narratives. ${ }^{520}$

[^135]With the five hundredth anniversary of the fall of Granada approaching, in the 1970s and 1980s many studies fell into broader explorations of the meaning of the year 1492 , such as the binaries of continuity or discontinuity, and conquest or reconquest. ${ }^{521}$ Furthermore, since then there has been an interest in plurality of identities in the peninsula. The question of agency for members of these communities has been of concern for some. Louis Cardaillac addressed the issue of agency by studying polemical literature from all sides, showing an active resistance (polemics) on the part of members of these communities. ${ }^{522}$ Consequently the perception was that not only was this whole community inassimilable, it was willfully so.

It has become acceptable in recent decades to identify the challenges with texts and language as conveyors of history, including problems with representation, and especially to challenge the use of certain types of texts to make broad generalizations, such as those of inquisitorial proceedings. ${ }^{523}$ Yet, the narratives are still solely about a lack of assimilation (non-Spanishness), and the Islam of this community (nonChristianness). Since the late 1970s the argument for the non-assimilation has also been supported by a common, yet unquestioned view of the practice of taqiyya (dissimulation) by the whole community: a view advanced by Louis Cardaillac. ${ }^{524}$ Relying on taqiyya supports their use of the term "morisco" not only as a religious other, but as a racial or ethnic other as well. Furthermore, the Arabist position continues to favor a sole view of

[^136]this community as homogenously Muslim rather than Christian, regardless of baptism. In the case of the texts analyzed in this thesis, which themselves are of a particular kind (e.g. tied to the institutional church), the conclusions are not intended to substitute one essentialized narrative for another. Therefore, as expressed in the Introduction, this study is not about internal belief, but about discourse. Thus, it should add to the knowledge regarding these communities and the expulsions of numbers of its members.

Also around 1992, there was a (re)evaluation of the state of the field and expansion of interest of these communities which seems to have coincided with a broader interest in local histories and the multiplicity of voices or identities, a call for a more interdisciplinary approach, and the use of alternative or different types of sources. ${ }^{525}$ In addition to the important contribution of Antonio Ortiz Dominguez and Bernard Vincent (1978), Amalia García Pedraza, among others, points to the pivotal contributions by Francisco Márquez Villanueva (1991) and Mercedes García Arenal (1992). ${ }^{526}$ Francisco Márquez Villanueva tried to show the connection between old and new Christians not only through the use of institutional or official primary texts, but also by looking at local and quotidian (con)texts and narratives. Mercedes García Arenal proposed a new line of questioning of the sources which is summarized by García Pedroza as asking:

What does it mean to be morisco; what was the level of acculturation; what were the constitutive elements of identity; what are the frontiers that define a minority group; what determines difference, and above all...what role did the new religion play in the formation of a new social identity? ${ }^{527}$

This falls in line with current questions having to do with the quotidian, with regional differences or contexts, as well as difference and plurality within the same communities. Yet, in many ways the overarching opposition of the two "homogenous" communities continues to be the dominant narrative, even if now understood in terms of vastly different

[^137]mentalities and communities that were incompatible with one another. ${ }^{528}$ Given the insistence on the bi/tripartite matrix, it can only be looked at as inter-religious conflict or difference rather than intra-religious conflict or difference. Another question which may be asked is whether different or additional conclusions could be reached in answering the question "What does it mean to be morisco?" above, if it was "What does it mean to be a new Christian"? In the end this has to do with the construction of these communities as other to justify their expulsions as non-Christian and non-Spanish.

Francisco Márquez Villanueva summarizes the three major historiographical errors concerning the study of these communities as: the idea that new Christians constituted a threat to the state: some sort of a fifth column; ${ }^{529}$ the idea that they were an "inassimilable morisco minority"; and the idea that all of Spanish (old Christian) society was against them, including that there was complete animosity between the communities. ${ }^{530}$ Márquez Villanueva challenges a homogenous or one-sided view of the community of the baptized, descendants of Muslims. The language study found in this thesis supports that position.

Some traditional subjects of study regarding the baptized descendants of Muslims, including those in Granada, have to do with trying to ascertain the causes of rebellions and expulsions, yet few go beyond the apologetic, polemical, and inquisitorial literature.

Furthermore, given the silence in the texts, there is apparently little interest in determining the level of assimilation (for perceived resistance is easier to determine), or in discovering the quality of the conversions, or in understanding the lives lived by members of these communities. James S . Amelang describes this phenomenon in the following way:

Crypto-Islam is arguably the most closely studied, as well as [the most] controversial, theme in historical writing on the moriscos. Curiously, until recently most speculation on the subject had echoed the two extreme positions of early modern commentators, which asserted that virtually all

[^138]> moriscos were either crypto-Muslims or (less frequently) sincere Christians. Historians today tend to prefer less schematic interpretations and allow room for more mixed experiences. That said, it is clearly harder to study assimilation than nonconformity, as the main sources for morisco historythe trials of crypto-Muslims by the Inquisition-are heavily biased in favor of the latter option. ${ }^{531}$

In the critique of older historical approaches, there is an acknowledgement of the gaps or aporias in single-sided and homogenous historical narratives which, in this case, rely on the (over)use of inquisitorial records or expulsion-apologetic literature, and perhaps of the term "morisco" itself. One of the turns in the study of the Granadan Christians, and other baptized descendants of Muslims, is a renewed interest in literary studies and what literary texts can tell us about their daily lives and attitudes: the quotidian.

Although these communities were defined by religion, there are very few sources and studies dedicated to the actual religious lives (and interior belief) of its members, something that is equally true of other Christians (so-called conversos or so-called old Christians). Amalia García Pedraza argues that one of the ways to go beyond the binary of assimilation and non-assimilation is to research the actual religious life of these communities through the expanded use of a variety of sources. ${ }^{532}$ Before being able to fully make this transition, the categories used in the narratives still have to be unshackled from the bi/tripartite religious matrix.

These histories have been supported, in part, by the (over)use of inquisitorial records as texts to understand these communities. The sole use of inquisitorial texts tends to undermine whether it was possible for the Granadans, and other baptized descendants of Muslims in other regions, to truly become Christians (by truly converting), given their baptism. Yet, the overall aim of State and Church, with the threat of the Inquisition, was to keep these communities under their dual control. It was extremely complicated both to accuse a community (or communities) of being non-Christian, as well as to continue to assert the Christianity of the community so that it could still fall under the jurisdiction and be controlled by the Church and the Inquisition.

[^139]Inquisitorial records only refer to and represent a fraction of the members of the communities and have been used to homogenize and generalize about the entire community. Notwithstanding the dearth of sources and studies on the actual religious lives (and interior belief), which has led to the overall view of "religious deficiency," some historians are beginning to agree that among all practitioners of Christianity in Spain there were varying degrees of adherence to the faith. Going beyond inquisitorial and polemical texts, as well as (re)reading these texts by using different lenses and analyzing discourses, will help historians gain better insight into the actual practices and beliefs rather than the practices and beliefs purported in the written record (the discourse); yet, there are still some historiographical issues to be overcome.

Equating deficiency in practice with not being Christian is also theologically problematic in terms of baptism. As mentioned earlier, if the texts are looked at more closely, it can be noticed that the efficacy of baptism was not challenged although the lack of conversion was. Whereas State documents from Granada at times expressed an attitude toward the lack of true conversion for the Granadans, church documents expressed frustration at the behavior of the baptized descendants of Muslims. Yet none of these texts invalidated their baptism; notwithstanding the perceived deficiencies in conversion, instruction, and indoctrination. The conclusion made (and shown) is that many of the arguments used to justify the expulsions of these Christians, baptized descendants of Muslims, may not be able to be justified by Christian theology or tradition, if the problem was deemed to be with the rite of baptism.

Ascertaining the level of true conversion (interior belief) may be impossible. For example, B. Netanyahu was adamant that the majority of the baptized former Jews and their baptized descendants completely assimilated into "Spanish society" and were Christian. This position was in direct response to the assessment of Jews by both Américo Castro and Claudio Sánchez Albornoz. Neither Castro nor Sánchez Albornoz could conceive of any true Jewish or Muslim conversions to Christianity in the centuries surrounding 1492. For Castro, the Jewish converts merely had "an appearance of Christianity." ${ }^{533}$ And Sánchez Albornoz insists that in 1391 Jews only sought baptism as

[^140]an alternative to the violence they were experiencing, and that the Jews that were baptized
allowed themselves to be swept by the tide, constituted from thence forth a hybrid element, enclosed within the Spanish-Christian society and for a long time not assimilated to it. ${ }^{534}$

Although Américo Castro should be credited with the fact that Muslims and Jews can no longer be ignored in the study of the history of Spain, and that Muslims and Jews influenced what Spain and its people are today, he held a common historiographical view regarding the new Christians. Castro saw new Christians as a political threat that conspired with enemies of Spain (e.g. the Turks and north-African pirates): a so-called fifth column. ${ }^{535}$ Castro suggests that new Christians never truly converted to Christianity, were of suspect faith, and were inassimilable-in short, the same historiographical stances seen as errors above. ${ }^{536}$

For Américo Castro even as subjects of the king the new Christians and their baptized descendants "were in reality Moors who kept their religion and customs." 537 Castro further stipulates that it was indeed the fact that they were "so much so Moors" that led Phillip III to expel them. ${ }^{538}$ Enigmatically (and here Claudio Sánchez Albornoz would not agree), Castro believed that the new Christians "felt themselves as Spanish as the old Christians." ${ }^{539}$ These positions rely on maintaining the prior religious bi/tripartite matrix

[^141](through (re)inscription) from Muslims, Christians, and Jews to old Christians, and new Christians of the Jews and new Christians of the Moors.

The study of these communities has been different in the past twenty-five years, including a multiplication of areas of interest, use of more types of sources, and interdisciplinary approaches. There has been a change in the questioning of the sources as Mercedes García Arenal suggested, but unlike in the literary fields where the texts themselves have been problematized and seen as a source of new information, in the historical field the texts are still being used to create historical narratives without looking more closely at aspects of the texts themselves that can be used to better elucidate and understand the historical narrative. In the study of these communities the shift has not fully been made to value form (post-modern) as well as content (modernity). Yet in Alun Munslow's terms, there has been a "new conceptualization (of causation) that connects the facts together in a new narrative description" still focused on content but not on form. ${ }^{540}$ In other words the "linguistic turn"541 in historical studies has not completely reached the approach to the particular study of these communities.

In addition to the "linguistic turn" there are other inter-disciplinary approaches that have yet to be fully applied to the study of these communities. These include post-modern approaches, including aspects of post-colonialism. In the case of the narrative produced here, the concern is not only with the language used on these pages, but also with trying to understand the language used in the pages of the primary texts and how these have been used or not by historians in their narratives based on those texts. Therefore, the "linguistic turn" is both self-reflexive and historiographical. Put differently, and again using the language of Alun Munslow, the historical narratives created about these sixteenthcentury communities remain within constructionism and have not made a complete move toward deconstructionism. Therefore, here in this narrative and artifact, when the language of empirical observation, hypothesis testing, and narrative creation is used, it is not done in such a way as to remain within the mid-twentieth century application of social

[^142]science methodology to history, but as an entry point to the constructed nature of the language found in the texts: a catachrestic approach.

### 2.3 Other approaches

The meta-narratives about the history of Spain, such as those presented above, generally have a Europeanizing tendency, which in turn produce a desemitization of the history of Spain. Arabists, and liberal and conservative historians, who focus on these communities and their expulsions, for the most part consider these communities to have been homogenously Muslim rather than Christian because of baptism. Therefore, these types of narratives produced about these communities have not made the "linguistic turn." In this section tools used in other fields are considered for use in the study of the texts and discourses about these communities.

Since the latter decades of the twentieth century, post-colonial and post-modernity approaches have extensively called into question the Enlightenment or Modernity view of history. ${ }^{542}$ And thus, the "objective" histories and "meta" narratives of the past which fail to capture the constructed elements or discursive strategies of the texts themselves and their biases are being challenged. For example, these narratives fail to capture the discursive reactions to the external constructions of Spain (such as the discourses of the "Black Legend"), the attempts by Crown and Church to control an internal colony or minoritized group (colonialism), and the historical complexities of the period as they were reflected or erased in the texts.

These challenges have also shaken the underpinnings of fields beyond history, have exposed gaps and assumptions in scholarship, and have opened previously unexplored areas of cross-disciplinary research. Moreover, this questioning has further shown how ideological the historical endeavor can be, and how much more there is beyond the history that has been presented. ${ }^{543}$ Post-colonial and post-modern histories,

[^143]narratives, and reading strategies have opened the possibility of more complex and broader histories by identifying and/or including voices and communities that have been ignored, silenced, homogenized, and excluded or constructed as other. These reading strategies have given different and new lenses to explore the same texts and discover more nuanced histories for these communities, rather than the history of this community: new ways of reading the same texts.

One early example of this type of history being called into question can be seen in the work of Edward W. Said (1935-2003). ${ }^{544}$ Said alerted academia to the ways in which scholars had reified communities as exotic and other, as well as how these constructions have been perpetuated without challenge within the academic world: he named this process Orientalism. ${ }^{545}$ Out of these challenges came the assertion that the construction of the other is intricately tied to the construction of the self. Notwithstanding this contribution, Said's work, as well as other post-colonial works, have also been criticized for gaps and blind spots; such, as being limited to Enlightenment and Modern Empires (British, Dutch, French, and to a lesser extent the United States). Because of this orientation, these theorists and theories have been mostly blind to Spain and Latin America, and thus the sixteenth- and seventeenth-century imperial expansion. ${ }^{546}$ Whereas post-colonialism is a critique of an Enlightenment and Modernity view of history, it must also be viewed as applicable to pre-Enlightenment empires and their colonies. If post-colonialism ignores Spain, Portugal, and Latin America, it remains Eurocentric and ends up (over)correcting Orientalism with Occidentalism. ${ }^{547}$

[^144]Ignoring Spain, Portugal, and Latin America in a way gives credence to the discourses of the so-called Black Legend (seeing Spain as de facto different) and gives preference to the Enlightenment, Protestantism, and to English, French, and Dutch empires, while dismissing the rise of empires and nation-states in the early-Modern and Renaissance periods, Roman Catholicism, and the Papacy. ${ }^{548}$ Although the pervasiveness of the discourses of the "Black Legend" is not always specifically acknowledged, post-colonial theorists are increasingly recognizing this gap. As Peter Childs expresses, "there has not been just one period of colonization in the history of the world." ${ }^{549}$ Similarly, Homi K. Bhabha strongly asserts that post-colonial tools are not contingent on modernity, and thus have found applicability in the study of other times, places, empires, and texts. Bhabha writes:


#### Abstract

postcolonial critique bears witness to those countries and communities-in the North and the South, urban and rural-constituted, if I may coin a phrase, 'otherwise than modernity'. Such cultures of a postcolonial contramodernity may be contingent to modernity, discontinuous or in contention with it, resistant to its oppressive, assimilationist technologies; but they also deploy the cultural hybridity of their borderline conditions to 'translate', and therefore reinscribe, the social imaginary of both metropolis and modernity. ${ }^{550}$


[^145]549 Peter Childs and Patrick Williams, An Introduction to Post-Colonial Theory (London and New York, 1997), 1.

550 Homi K. Bhabha, Location of Culture, 9.

Therefore, post-colonial tools can be and are used to inform the study of the sixteenth-century Granadans, seen as an internal colony of the nascent-Spanish Empire, as well as other peninsular baptized descendants of Muslims. The use of post-colonial tools as part of a reading strategy in the narrative being produced here offers a multivalent corrective, for it includes Spain as a pre-Enlightenment empire in the sphere of study of post-colonial and post-modern theory, and challenges historical narratives regarding certain "minority" communities within Spain.

Granada can be seen and studied as a colony of the empire, similar to colonies in Latin America. A guiding definition of colonization and its relationship to both colonial and imperial is
the takeover of territory, appropriation of material resources, exploitation of labour and interference with political and cultural structures of another territory or nation, and imperialism as a global system. ${ }^{551}$

The Nasrid Kingdom of Granada was a territory taken over by Castile and the Spanish Monarchy. The Crown exploited its material resources and labor, ${ }^{552}$ and denigrated and supplanted its political and cultural structures. Furthermore, the centuries-long Christian (re)conquest of Spain was accompanied by a (re)population effort. ${ }^{553}$ This was no different in Granada. Part of the population was displaced, whether by exile or migration. Yet, there were some practical differences, between Granada and the other colonies (such as New Spain), and these are understood in post-colonial terms as the difference between periphery and center, or internal and external.

By using post-colonial and post-modern tools in this deconstructionist approach to the historical endeavor, the analysis and conclusions in this project make the "linguistic turn." The primary texts are (re)read to identify the internal discursive reactions to the external construction of Spain as the other to Europe. Knowing that there were internal discursive reactions prompts an examination of whether there were changes in the referential language (definition and usage) of these communities, as part of the reaction. Furthermore, the referential language can then be identified as a mechanism of control for the State and the Church. Therefore, using a catachrestic approach to reading these texts

[^146]also helps to uncover ways in which some people in these communities have been erased from the texts, and the discursive processes that aid in that erasure. Reading the texts with Orientalism in mind also opens avenues to identifying the ways in which the self and the other are intricately connected in the texts as nationally and imperially Spanish identity was being constructed as the sixteenth century progressed. All this supports the stance that Spain should not from the outset be studied as de facto different, because when that is the starting point, it requires making its minority communities "embody" the difference within its borders.

With these opportunities provided by the use of these tools, what follows is a presentation of other more specific conceptual frameworks, within and beyond the umbrella of post-colonialism and post-modernism used in analyzing the changes in definition and usage in specific referential language found in the primary texts in chapters 3 and 4.

The first set of tools comes from the works of Homi K. Bhabha (b. 1949, India) and Walter D. Mignolo (b. 1941, Argentina). ${ }^{554}$ Bhabha's and Mignolo's works are useful in the identification of the processes of construction of the other, particularly the identification of hybridity, cultural difference, and colonial discourse or semiosis. For Bhabha it is important to focus "on those moments or processes that are produced in the articulation of cultural difference."555 This process has not been studied in the case of the Granadan community, texts about this community, or more broadly about the baptized descendants of Muslims in the peninsula. What was and is produced in the articulation of self and other is something that should be read beyond binary categories (horizontal) or hierarchies (vertical); an area known as hybridity—a third space. ${ }^{556}$

The contestation of binaries-such as, if the community was described as nonChristian that it must have been Muslim—is accompanied by a challenge to the teleological view of history and change, since both tend to function on a spectrum along a

[^147]plane (horizontal). ${ }^{557}$ In the case of Spain, historians are called to challenge the permeation of the idea of progressive Reconquista (meaning teleological progress from point $A$ to point $B$ ) as solely underpinning the inevitable expulsion of an entire community of Christians as the completion of the process of Reconquista.

Furthermore, the bi/tripartite religious matrix is then challenged by Homi K. Bhabha's differentiation of cultural diversity and cultural difference. For Bhabha,
cultural diversity is an epistemological object-culture as an object of empirical knowledge-whereas cultural difference is the process of enunciation of culture as 'knowledgeable,' authoritative, adequate to the construction of systems of cultural identification. ${ }^{558}$

In the case of Spain, scholars (over)state cultural diversity as static and remaining within respective religious boundaries (religious otherness), without acknowledging the creation of something hybrid, a "third space" which is "neither the one thing nor the other," being not strictly in the religious sphere. ${ }^{559}$ Perhaps this "third space" is what is intrinsically Spanish (held in common) and what is missed by insisting on "systems of cultural identification" based on religious affiliation, binaries, or matrices. Another useful way to differentiate cultural diversity from cultural difference is by identifying the places where these two are conflated, and, thus seeing how the conflation hides the very processes of going from diversity to difference, discursively and historiographically.

As Homi K. Bhabha notes,
the enunciation of cultural difference problematizes the binary division of past and present, tradition and modernity...[and] problematizes homogenizing effects. ${ }^{560}$

The national narrative or idea, such as the "one, eternal Spain" is indeed what is threatened, not the "other" who is threatening. Bhabha notes, "the threat of cultural difference is no longer a problem of 'other' people. It becomes a question of otherness of

[^148]the people-as-one." ${ }^{561}$ What is indeed false is the historicity of the national narrative as real.

Cultural diversity, as presented by Américo Castro and Claudio Sánchez Albornoz, insists on distinct categories and binaries (and here the bi/tripartite matrix) and overstates the separation between the groups as well as the static nature of the groups. Agreed here and relevant in the context of Spain, Homi K. Bhabha warns that "[c]ultures are never unitary in themselves, nor simply dualistic in the relation of Self to Other." ${ }^{562}$ Therefore, getting away from the framework of three religions (homogeneity and bi/tripartite) will open the door to begin to understand more fully the socio-cultural and religious identities of these communities, including the multiplicity of loci of intersection.

Using post-colonial tools allows Granada to be seen as a colony, and this in turn enables us to study the theorized constructed nature of this community (and later communities throughout the peninsula) as other. By theorizing underlying othering processes the primary texts can be studied within the context of what Walter D. Mignolo at first called "colonial discourse" and later "colonial semiosis."563 In colonial discourse or semiosis, the Reconquista (including the idea of Reconquista) can be seen as a long colonization process of the peninsula, and the expulsions of communities of baptized descendants of Muslims as the culmination of that process. Furthermore, the expulsions were part of the ongoing consolidation of the Spanish Empire and the external reactions to their hegemonic claims, as explained before regarding the discourses of the so-called Black Legend. Similarly, the monarchs colonized the Kingdom of Granada beginning in 1492 and progressively finished the religious conquest by requiring baptism (a mechanism of control) of all Muslims in the peninsula. This was a discursive process because

[^149]The objective of colonial discourse is to construe the colonized as a population of degenerate types on the basis of racial origin, in order to justify conquest and to establish systems of administration and instruction....
Colonial discourse produces the colonized as a social reality which is at once an 'other' and yet entirely knowable and visible. ${ }^{564}$

Identifying this "production" of the colonized who in the case of the peninsular Christians are descendants of Muslims, is an objective of this project. The discursive elements of the so-called Black Legend can also be seen as a type of colonial discourse. Here Walter D. Mignolo is helpful by differentiating internal- from external-colonial discourse. Applying his idea, one could say that the so-called Black Legend as an external colonial discourse "produced" a reaction within Spain that required an internal-colonial discourse: creating the racial other (racialist turn) and then ultimately excising it.

The discourses of the so-called Gothic Myth, as a reaction to the discourses of the Black Legend, can also be understood as the fetishism that Homi K. Bhabha describes with reference to "historical origins." Bhabha writes,

The myth of historical origination—racial purity, cultural priority—produced in relation to the colonial stereotype functions to 'normalize' the multiple beliefs and split subjects that constitute colonial discourse as a consequence of its process of disavowal. ${ }^{565}$

The more the national myth has been "disrupted" (to use Bhabha's term) the more the unified and homogenous narrative has fallen apart. The presence of difference continually disrupts the "totalizing boundaries" and the "essentialist identities" of "imagined communities."566 Once this is recognized, room opens up to study the breadth of cultural differences as found in the breadth of religious differences; rather than being seen as a religious binary between Christianity and Islam (which is eventually constructed into a racial or ethnic binary), it is possible to be seen as difference within Christianity (because of baptism) and one or more of its constitutive Christian communities. Or, put differently, an intra dynamic rather than an inter one.

By analyzing the language of the texts with post-colonial and post-modern tools, such as colonial discourse, it becomes apparent that the post-Enlightenment

[^150]understanding of race used historiographically_meaning retroactively imposed—becomes a less useful lens in studying these communities in the moments (or processes) when they were being constructed or racialized as other. This is because the othering processes which were racializing (racialist turn) had not yet been completed, and still did not have the racialist meanings that would later emerge.

Homi K. Bhabha (and Frantz Fanon) propose that the epidermis becomes the location of difference. Yet, what happens when in fact there is no radical or significant difference in the epidermis between self and other? The discourse is read and produced as reality; in this case historiographically. As Bhabha puts it "skin as a signifier of discrimination must be produced or processed as visible" 567 —whether it is. Bhabha's concepts (as tools) are used to look for the locus of difference in the texts and show examples on which this is seen in the skin.

The post-colonial and post-modern tools presented above need to be specifically applied to a narrower subject matter of concern in this project. For example, Granada is seen as a colony and Muslims and their baptized descendants are seen as the colonized. Colonial discourse is identified specifically in the texts under study, such as hybridity and third space, in order to find discourses that helped to justify the expulsions, discourses that were "produced as reality" (for example, moriscos were not Christian nor Spanish), the "locus of difference" (they were indelibly other), etc. Binaries are contested as well as the distance between self and other. Some of these tools have already been used in narrower projects as presented below.

For example, useful applications of some of the above theoretical frameworks for the production of this narrative can be seen in the works of Barbara Fuchs (b. 1970, United States) and Alain Milhou (1944-2001, France), referred to before in this narrative. Milhou and Fuchs problematized the homogenous historical narratives for these communities, and identified the historiographical counter trends to the "meta" narratives discussed above. Fuchs has identified instances of hybridity in texts relating to these communities and in material culture, and along with Milhou has called attention to the

[^151]constructed nature of the idea of "Spain" as reactions to the discursive iterations of the socalled Black Legend, or as a deorientalizing and desemitizing historiographical tendency.

Barbara Fuchs provides a useful conceptual framework, such as noting the fifteenth through seventeenth centuries literary shift from maurophilia to maurophobia in the peninsula. ${ }^{568}$ This framework is used to identify and study processes in the texts of interest for this project. Though a meta-narrative itself, it is useful because it indicates a process not a moment, and is useful to understand the religious lives of members of these communities, the gap in historiography, and to expand our knowledge and understanding of the expulsions. Put differently, it helps us understand how Spain went from acknowledging, tolerating, and even copying its Moorish culture (Maurophilia) to getting rid of its Jewish and Moorish constitutive elements (Maurophobia). Fuchs proposes that

Spain's hardening attitude toward Moors or Moriscos over the course of the sixteenth century may stem in part from the force of European constructions of Moorish Spain. [Therefore], [h]ow does Spain, in its development as a Nation-State, negotiate its often contradictory identifications with Moorishness, and how does this relationship change over the course of the sixteenth century, as the vestiges of Al-Andalus receded and the CounterReformation put pressure on all forms of heterodoxy? Conversely, how does the rest of Europe present Spain's connection to the Moors and how is this connection exploited for particular political goals? ${ }^{569}$

Fuchs sees the "hardening attitude" toward these communities as a reaction to the discourses of the so-called Black Legend. Yet, Fuchs' work is still constrained by the religious binary of Islam/Christianity, or inter-religious, rather than Christian/Christian, or intra-religious.

As is true of most processes, the transition from Maurophilia to Maurophobia was not immediate, and they coexisted for a while. Barbara Fuchs writes,

[^152]The maurophile fashion coexists, however uneasily, with the maurophobic discourse of Spain's vulnerability to, and definition against, Moorish culture. ${ }^{570}$

It is suggested that Homi K. Bhabha's "third space" or "hybrid space" is the place where Maurophilia and Maurophobia co-exist, especially since this space of encounter is a place of incredible creativity and volatility; it both repels and attracts. ${ }^{571}$ The religious, ethnic, and socio-cultural connotations of the maurus of Maurophilia and -phobia are here conflated. Barbara Fuchs has a two-part hypothesis: first, that Maurophobia was the "conflation of Maurophilia with deviance" (she traces this conflation to the beginning of the fifteenth century); ${ }^{572}$ second, that Maurophobia was part of the "desemitization" of Spain in the sixteenth century. The second part of her hypothesis is taken from the work of Alain Milhou. ${ }^{573}$

Seeing the Kingdom of Granada as a colony is challenging, especially since the population of this "colony" was displaced throughout the Kingdom of Castile after the second rebellion of the Alpujarras; yet, the baptized descendants of Muslims remained colonized. Therefore, attention is also given to processes of othering of these populations in various contexts: the processes of the differentiation and the construction of the binary self/other away from self/self. Barbara Fuchs puts it slightly differently stating that the paradox lies in the fact that Moors were not foreigners or aliens, a shared fundamental stance for this project. ${ }^{574}$ Put differently, the baptized descendants of Moors or of Jews were not who made Spain the other of Europe. This is a criticism against Edward W. Said who "requires distance between Self and Other, which is not possible in Spain." ${ }^{575}$

[^153]For Barbara Fuchs, the excising of the Moor and his or her descendants and practices from the national identity of Spain was a process of "willful forgetting." ${ }^{576}$ And this process was a reaction to the Moorish representation of Spain by the rest of Europe, and in the discourses of the "Black Legend." Yet, this "willful forgetting" did not actually erase the Moor from everything and everywhere. What Fuchs argues is that the historians' narrative that buys into the State's narrative of this "minority" community being "unassimilable and undesirable"577 fits in nicely with a "clash of cultures model," as could be said of the other historiographical errors and sweeping models or meta narratives. ${ }^{578}$ Both of these aspects completely dismiss or misrepresent the quotidian and the shared material culture. Put differently, just because religious otherness was removed through baptism does not mean that shared elements, as well, ceased to exist, given that these existed prior to the decreed baptisms. This is itself an application of Homi K. Bhabha's differentiation of diversity and difference. ${ }^{579}$

Hegemonic segments, those in power, in Spain reacted to the discourses of the "Black Legend," by removing whatever was identified as connected to Judaism and Islam, yet this in itself is not proof that there was something solely identifiable as Jewish or Islamic to be excised; and as such something inherently Spanish was lost. Barbara Fuchs explains it this way:
whether embraced or stigmatized therefore, Moorishness becomes an unavoidable component in the construction of Spain's national identity over the sixteenth century. ${ }^{580}$

Both "racialized, essentialized distinctions" and "representations of commonalities between Moors and Christians in Spanish Maurophilia" share the assumption of Spain's

[^154]Moorishness, whether real or constructed. ${ }^{581}$ Ultimately, Spain cannot excise its very self; it can only damage it.

In the desemitization thesis Alain Milhou proposes that there was a dual process of identity construction for Spain in the sixteenth century. The related parts of these constructions were an opening toward Europe (Europeanization) and a closing toward the "oriental" (deorientalizing or desemitizing). Milhou also called this process "deAfricanizing" and "de-Judaizing." ${ }^{582}$ The discourses of the so-called Gothic Myth can be seen as part of the Europeanization process. Milhou notes that Spain did not open itself fully to Europe; eventually Spain closed itself off ideologically both to Europe (e.g. the Continental Reformations) and the orient (e.g. Judaism and Islam). ${ }^{583}$ Yet Milhou's Europeanization and deorientalizing thesis needs to be expanded in the way that Barbara Fuchs does, by including the remnants, the shared material culture or quotidian, in short, hybridity or that which is produced through interaction, whether positive or negative.

As far as the discourses of the so-called Black Legend are concerned, Barbara Fuchs notes that Alain Milhou points to its characterization of Spanish origins as exotic because of its epidermic or biological and cultural mestizaje (hybridity and mixture). ${ }^{584}$ After 1578, when Bartolomé de las Casas' Brevíssima was translated into Dutch, the exotic image of Spain would be transformed and augmented into a morally blackened image. ${ }^{585}$ Therefore, Spain was not only a nation of bad Christians (half-Jewish and halfMoorish Catholics), but also a nation of inhumane conquerors. ${ }^{586}$

Both Alain Milhou and Barbara Fuchs are clear on the processes of identity construction being causal and reactionary. Milhou writes,

[^155]even before it existed for the Spaniards themselves, Spain existed for the other Europeans as a well-defined country, different from the rest of Christendom. ${ }^{587}$

It is this external construction that Spain continually strives to refute by its alternate construction of its own identity. A textually constructed identity which tries to remove actual or constructed oriental—here meaning Jewish or Muslim—and exotic elements ends up removing a part of its very self, including its quotidian nature. Spain asserted its catholicity, only to be described as Jewish or Muslim. Yet, the de-Judaizing and deIslamizing (by getting rid of people and communities) did not complete the desemitization of Spain; the Jewish or Muslim constitutive elements of material culture remained, as well as descendants from these communities. ${ }^{588}$ For baptized descendants of Muslims their identity construction by others was an internal discursive reaction, which further bounded these communities as internal religious and ethnic others.

This section has explored deconstructionist approaches that can be used to study discursive constructions of baptized descendants of Muslims as non-Christian and nonSpanish. Such constructions which were used as justifications for the expulsions at the beginning of the seventeenth century. The theoretical underpinnings explored serve as the basis for the practical reading strategy presented in the next section. These theories include identifying "discursive reactions" as seen in the changes in referential languagemeaning and usage; or, language used as a mechanism of control. Identifying the ways in which the language of the texts was part of the processes of identity construction, both Europeanization and desemitization, which required the discursive separation of the self and other, even at the expense of the very self, encompassed in the other. The last tools to be presented were those of hybridity, difference, and colonial discourse. These latter ones are used as correctives to the (over)use of the bi/tripartite religious otherness which is insisted upon in the study of Spain. These tools also move away from an emphasis and reliance on binaries and the conflation of religious and non-religious categories. These also help in correcting the pervasiveness of the various historiographical errors and

[^156]overarching traditional approaches presented earlier, and in suggesting a new reading of the primary texts.

### 2.4 A multivalent strategy

Chapter 1 presented the historical contours of the history of the Granadans in the sixteenth century as well as a historical-theological presentation of baptism and conversion. For comparative purposes, and as other points in a long-term meta process, the chapter also included discussion of baptism and conversion of peninsular Jews and Amerindians. This historical presentation was followed in this chapter by a historiographical and methodological presentation of the general study of Spain and the more specific study of baptized descendants of Muslims from Granada and other places in the peninsula. As part of this methodological and historiographical presentation, some gaps in the study of these communities have been identified.

In addition to the historiographical errors identified by Francisco Márquez Villanueva, it is noted that the historical investigation of these communities did not make the "linguistic turn," and continues to insist on a bi/tripartite religious matrix as an organizing principle—and thus to perpetuate religious otherness. Although scholars are addressing the noted historiographical errors today, the texts have not yet been (re)read with an eye to the language changes of the sixteenth century that ultimately aided the discursive justifications of the expulsions. Furthermore, the changes in the ways to which these communities were referred, compared to how scholars have referred to this community have not been problematized, as done here in Chapter 4. Because of this, the processes of construction of these communities as other have been hidden as a possible area of study, as unearthed here. Thus, referring to this community as the morisco community is considered similar to, or part of, the historiographical errors identified by Francisco Márquez Villanueva. By starting from a place other than religious otherness, and by understanding how these communities came to be called the morisco community may provide insight into the language processes that helped to justify the expulsions of members of these various Christian communities. That in turn may help to eventually understand the lived lives of members of these communities.

Along with the theoretical foundations from Section 2.3, such as colonial discourse, this section uses a deconstructionist historical reading strategy for the primary documents
of interest. The deconstructionist reading strategy first and foremost focuses on the language used in the texts, to refer to these communities before and after their baptism, and how the language changed in usage and meaning as the century progressed. The form, or language choices, of the texts are read beyond the apparent meaning of the content, for another aim of the document analysis is to identify how it was constructed, as well as the variety of meanings—hybrid, and non-stable or non-static-of the terminology used and how these changed.

The approach described in the previous paragraph is supported by an emerging theory which combines Homi K. Bhabha's "third space" (hybridity) as the lens to understand Barbara Fuchs' conceptualization (and location) of the shift from Maurophilia to Maurophobia. This occurred in the moment of the emergence of a construction of a Spanish identity (Europeanizing and desemiticizing), with conscious and discursive processes (colonial discourse/semiosis), which identified certain communities as other (thus, minoritizing them) and apart from that of Spanish identity, an identity which in turn has been historiographically (re)produced and reified as fact. This has to do with the "narration" and textual processes as well. An example of how this process of narration may be identified can be seen in the work of Lucas A. Marchante-Aragón. ${ }^{589}$

The expulsions of members of these communities completed the movement toward Maurophobia which can be understood as a "rejection of hybridity," as shown by Lucas Marchante-Aragón. ${ }^{590}$ Mindful that both conceptualizations by Barbara Fuchs and Marchante-Aragón are in literary analysis, these changes in linguistic usage and meaning are seen in the non-literary documents studied in this thesis (see chapters 3 and 4).
Furthermore, these processes occurred in a context and era in which there was a first time "construction of a national consciousness." ${ }^{591}$ The "rejection of hybridity," or rejection of a spectrum and push toward a binary (us/them and static) was also the culmination of the establishment of a hierarchy of peoples with Castilian old Christians as the "pre-eminent" caste, and defining caste, in the peninsula. ${ }^{592}$ Said differently, the creation of these

[^157]communities into a single community of the other functioned on both horizontal (hybridity) and vertical (hegemony and hierarchy) planes. The othering and ultimate expulsions functioned to "reject Castile's own hybridity" 593 and to establish a particular segment of the Spanish community (Castilian) as the dominant political, socio-cultural, and religious one in the peninsula. These processes are also seen in the historical articulation of the myth of origins (so-called Gothic Myth) and are the final step of the Reconquista (the expulsions).

As a discursive strategy of a particular historical moment, the "rejection of hybridity," the exultation of the Gothic, and the expulsions of members of communities of Christians determined that the old Christian (primarily Castilian) would be victorious in "narrating the nation." ${ }^{594}$ This can be seen as another aspect of a post-colonial lens when ascertaining the struggle of narration, for it established one particular group as hegemonic and gave that group the power to interpret and narrate those colonized. Yet, the continued existence of groups that were not old Christian always "questioned the dominant's caste's claims to ethnic primacy." ${ }^{595}$

As colonized subjects, the baptized descendants of Muslims were not able to narrate their stories; they were not able to self-represent. ${ }^{596}$ And as the national narrative emerged and evolved, they were denied "any claim to Spanishness," what here has been termed non-Spanish. ${ }^{597}$ In the end, the constructed national narrative was monological. ${ }^{598}$ As seen above, the othering processes of these particular communities which had genealogical ties to Islam was part of the construction of Spanish identity and parts of

[^158]these processes are traced in the documents under study for this thesis. Another aspect of the construction of Spanish identity was the construction of the Spanish religious (Christian) identity, which went through similar processes as did national and literary narratives. For example, as Marchante-Aragón notes, Deborah Root posits that
the Church played an important role in the process of differentiating a part of the community that had not necessarily been perceived as different. At least, physical racial difference was practically non-existent, and it was precisely that lack of perceivable difference that prompted the Church to start its campaign of differentiation. ${ }^{599}$

Deborah Root understands the processes of constructing these communities as other to have had three stages. First, when these communities were still Moorish (as Muslim) they were understood and labeled as "infidels"; second, after baptism, members of these communities were deemed "heretical"; third, as time passed the communities were deemed as an "impenitente negativo." Infidel can be understood as a religious category (religious other); heretic as a religious and socio-cultural category;600 impenitente negativo as a somatic category (body and blood, non-Spanish) as well as a non-Christian—albeit still under the control of the Church. Root summarizes the complete process by identifying a "production of Morisco difference as heterodoxy," ${ }^{601}$ whereby "infidelity was reinscribed as heresy, as something existing within the Christian community instead of outside of it."602 An objective here is to identify analogous (parallel) processes in the texts under study here, as well as to show some possible next steps in the othering (racialist) processes. Before morisco difference was produced, "morisco" had to override "new Christian" or "newly converted" from the discourse.

The problem and anxiety around the hybrid shows the small difference between old Christians and new Christians in the peninsula. This possibility of passing caused anxiety to the old Christian population and was related to the "indeterminability of faith" which

[^159]became tied to the eventual construction of a "determinable ethnicity." 603 With the language study in hand, Chapter 4 identifies the ways in which historians have missed some discursive strategies. It does so by comparing the language in the texts with the language in the historiographical narratives-the difference between the historical and historiographical (perhaps the difference between new Christians and moriscos), which has been influenced by the overarching homogenous inassimilable views about these communities, and the historiographical narratives about Spain. Furthermore, the influence of "myths" about Spain, assumed as fact, can be seen permeating first the texts and then the historiography. This is the process of unearthing and differentiating the reactions in the discourses from fact, and then of showing how the ongoing constructions of Spanish identity were in themselves reactions to external constructions, which then are read in these specific texts.

The initial steps in the enactment of the methodology are very pragmatic. In Chapter 3, the first step in the analysis of the documents is to map the language used to refer to members of these communities. This quantitative analysis proceeds by documenting and counting all the naming references to persons in these communities in the primary texts in chronological order. The data for this analysis appears in Appendices 1 and 2. After documenting all the instances, the various meanings of the terms or phrases are analyzed and changes documented, in order to yield what in Chapter 3 are termed empirical observations, such as identifying the non-static and hybrid qualities of the language, and discursive processes, in order to identify how the other was constructed as the century progressed.

After identifying referential language in the primary texts, and tracing changes in its meaning and usage, this section further investigates the construction of the other by comparing the peninsular language to the contemporaneous language used with respect to another newly converted community, that of Amerindians: a trans-Atlantic approach. The trans-Atlantic approach is used to highlight the othering processes as they relate to the baptized descendants of Jews a century earlier, and the completion of these processes outside of the peninsula. Seeing the processes across the Atlantic strengthens the position that the othering of baptized descendants of Muslims were not isolated

[^160]processes, but related to what came before and after. The completion of these othering processes is shown through the analysis of the Sistema de Castas.

This catachrestic trans-Atlantic lens helps in understanding the constructedness of the other (and difference) when seen through the more factual, or at least agreed upon, otherness or difference of Amerindians from Spaniards; and through delving into some examples on how Spaniards themselves defined difference. In other words, the Granadans were not as different from Castilians as Amerindians and Spaniards were from one another. In addition, whatever difference there was, increasingly was presented as difference that could not be overcome. This highlights the dissimilarity between the discourse of difference and the epidermic reality (if any) of difference (or the shift from diversity to difference posited by Homi K. Bhabha); or, taking a discursive strategy (or strategies) as a factual reality (historiography). This also addresses the insidiousness of the repetition of elements of the discourses of the so-called Black Legend.

Trans-Atlantic approaches have not been applied in this way to the texts under study, and to the study of the Granadan community. The few trans-Atlantic studies that deal both with New Spain and Granada focus on the content rather than the form of the texts and their primary interest is the influence of Spain across the Atlantic (east to west). Here the interest is in what the texts from New Spain about Amerindians can elucidate about members of Christian communities, baptized descendants of Muslims, in the peninsula.

Another way of understanding the trans-Atlantic difference, changes in language usage and meaning is through an understanding of the tropic function of language. Apart from the four levels of meaning found in the narrative of this thesis as presented in the Introduction, ${ }^{604}$ this study investigates three uses of language that describes the baptized descendants of the Muslims: the historical use (as use and meaning changed), the discursive use (the purpose for the changes in usage and meaning), and the historiographical use (how historians have used the language). For example, figurative language is not just something stylistic that happens in a text; it is also part of a shared context with those who lived when the texts were written (tropes understood by the intended historical audience of the texts), and this may be lost in the passage of time and

[^161]the translation to a different cultural context. Put differently, would the baptized descendants of Muslims recognize the "moriscos" described in the historiographical narratives, or would the narrative of the expulsion be recognizable to the very persons who were expelled?

As noted one of the historiographical errors in the narratives about these communities has been the homogenizing tendency to describe the whole community as inassimilable, and in fact exclusively Muslim. In this thesis, the term "morisco" itself is understood to contribute to the aforementioned homogenizing tendency. "Morisco" may in fact be what Homi K. Bhabha calls a metonymy: ${ }^{605}$ a short-hand term which was used as an equivalent when in fact it was not. Furthermore, this corrective also opens up the hybrid spaces or interstices ${ }^{606}$ that exist between poles or binaries, in this case the spaces in a spectrum between Muslim and Christian, which include both "new Christian" or "newly converted" and "morisco." By using "morisco" as a stable term, one overlooks processes of change. This project is about identifying and recovering these processes. The distance between Muslim and Christian should have been one step: baptism. Instead, various agents extended this distance as time progressed.

Metonymy is a type of figurative language in which "the whole is referred to in terms of one of its constitutive parts," ${ }^{607}$ such as "cleats" referring not just to the metal spikes in sports shoes but to the entire shoe, and more narrowly this may be defined as synecdoche. ${ }^{608}$ In the case here the part or aspect of the community used to describe the whole was the moro/Moor (Muslimness), or that which indicated their lack of assimilation or conversion despite baptism. The problems with metonymy are: that the part can be

[^162]easily homogenized into the whole, and that the tropic image it meant to convey in its own context is not completely translatable to the historian. The latter means that in a way it is used as a metonymy of a metonymy: metonymy is referential. In the language of linguistics, "morisco" is the word used metonymically and its intended meaning or referent for the historian is "non-Christian," ${ }^{609}$ when, as shown in Chapter 3, that was not its meaning. Changes seen over time reveal a process or processes, and in this case a metonymic process, which can be missed if the term "morisco" is used or applied hastily. This process may also be understood as nominalization. ${ }^{610}$ In short, hybrid terms across time have non-static moments before terms become stable and complete the journey toward a "set" meaning: a process rather than moment of defining. The settled term or phrase then tends to be reified or used as metonymy, and then is used anachronistically.

This deconstructionist approach to reading the texts about communities of baptized descendants of Muslims in sixteenth-century Spain is predicated on the idea that the historian "can only signify the reality of the past (represent it and do that poorly)."611 Yet, without asserting a privileged position as an impartial historian, the approach used for this project also uses the contours of the "scientific method" with its empiricism, hypothesis testing, and inference as useful outlines or organizing principles to think about the research questions at hand and the analysis of the primary texts. ${ }^{612}$ The analysis of the texts identifies patterns, but these patterns will not be construed as being the patterns or the only patterns that can help compose a possible historical narrative that solely explains how the expulsions were justified discursively. This should particularly be noted given that in Chapter 3 the language of "quantitative analysis" and "empirical observations" is used.

Finally, a reminder that the analysis of the primary documents has already led to the intentional avoidance of the term "morisco" as a moniker for these communities throughout the entire narrative of this thesis. Instead, the phrase "baptized descendants of Muslims," and similar variations, is used. This shows that it is possible to expand the terminology used to refer to these communities of Christians, and to acknowledge that there was greater variation in language than the sole use of the term "morisco" implies.

[^163]A core objective for this project is thus to identify the referential language and textual processes that helped to justify discursively the 1609-14 expulsions of some Christians, who were baptized descendants of Muslims, by constructing them as nonChristian and non-Spanish. The aim of this chapter was to contextualize this goal within a broader historiographical and methodological framework, and to create a theoretical framework which supports answering the research questions while at the same time avoiding some historiographical errors identified, and to expand the tools used in the study of the texts about these communities. Chapter 3 begins to implement the methodology.

## Chapter 3: The term "Morisco"

The previous two chapters provided the historical and theological, as well as historiographical and methodological context that informs this study of Christians, descendants of Muslims, in what is today Spain. Of initial interest are documents about communities from Granada, expelled after the second rebellion of the Alpujarras, and documents about Christians (descendants of Muslims), expelled from the peninsula from 1609 to 1614. Other regions and time-frames are used in order to contrast, support, test, or strengthen the conclusions reached from the analysis of the Granadan primary documents. ${ }^{613}$ Since this community was no longer fully in the Kingdom of Granada after the second rebellion of the Alpujarras, the ongoing processes of construction of members of these communities of Christians as other (meaning non-Christian and non-Spanish) can be seen in documents from outside of Granada and from after 1571. Identifying the ongoing processes of construction builds on the initial presentation of the term "morisco" in the Introduction and the multivalent reading strategy introduced in Chapter 2.

Ultimately, this analysis aims to elucidate a "how" and not a "why" question: How were the peninsular expulsions (1609-1614) of some Christians, baptized descendants of Muslims, discursively justified? Rather than ascertaining: Why were Christian communities, of baptized descendants of Muslims, expelled from the peninsula between 1609 and 1614? The answer to the former lies, in part, with the identification of discursive processes which helped to construct these communities as indelibly other, through the identification of hybrid and non-static terms such as "new Christian," "newly converted," and "morisco." Subsequently, in Chapter 4, these processes of construction are untangled from the existing disconnection between the language used in the primary documents and the terminology used by historians.

After a presentation of a narrower historical context, the present chapter is divided into four parts. Through a quantitative and empirical analysis of eighty-two Granadan primary texts, Section 3.1 identifies the actual language used to refer to the baptized descendants of Muslims in Granada. ${ }^{614}$ Empirical observations result from the quantitative analysis which posits the beginning of the specific construction of the baptized

[^164]descendants of Muslims as a community of indelibly religiously other that was ultimately termed "morisco." In Section 3.2, the initial steps of these particular processes of construction of the other are shown by exploring the hybrid and non-static qualities of the terminology used in the Granadan primary texts, as well as the related changes in usage and meaning, then analyzing the Valencian documents and even the expulsion-related documents. Also in Section 3.2, the identification of these processes is reinforced through a comparison with the language used contemporaneously, across the Atlantic, to refer to baptized Amerindians, as a control group.

At this point, the premature substitution of the term "morisco" for the phrase "new Christian" or "newly converted" is shown to obscure the initial hybrid and non-static qualities of the terminology, as well as to conceal the othering processes of construction. This obfuscation is accomplished, in part, by the retroactive view and reinforcement of non-breachable difference (otherness), or a post-exile/expulsions lens. Given the transAtlantic approach, at the end of Section 3.2, an analysis is done of the term "morisco" as used in the seventeenth- and eighteenth-century Sistema de Castas and Casta Paintings.

Section 3.3 presents a series of documents from outside of Granada, dated after 1571, for which the application of the methodology is completed in Chapter 4. This textual introduction combined with the conclusions from Section 3.1 strengthen the hypothesis that the term "morisco" may, in fact, be more appropriate for other regions, contexts, and time-frames. Yet although a difference in regional and temporal usage existed, cumulatively the observations expose other steps in the processes of construction of these communities as other. Finally, Section 3.4 presents and analyses a variety of Expulsion Decrees and expulsions-related documents from 1609 to 1614. These documents are analyzed in the same manner as the Granadan documents, which findings the analysis of post-1571 Valencian documents reinforce. It is further demonstrated that the terminology was more varied and less static than the sole use of the term "morisco" would imply.

Interest in the study of the baptized descendants of Muslims is perhaps spurred on because of the fate some in these communities experienced. Or, the interest may be because these communities were the last vestige in the peninsula of the romantic view of Spain of the three religions (the tripartite matrix): a type of (re)inscription. For this project, interest lies in understanding how these communities-communities of Christians, given
their baptism-came to be understood as a community of non-Christians (the difference in inter- versus intra-group dynamics). In trying to comprehend the justifications for the expulsions of some in these communities, the language used to refer to them in secondary literature becomes problematic; thus, in Chapter 4, the difference in the terminology of primary and secondary literature is addressed. Historians have termed these communities the "morisco" community. Yet given that there were many other ways to describe these communities, is "morisco" the most appropriate (and least constructed) term to be used? And can this be done without essentializing the language in another direction?

The term "morisco" used to describe this community is a retroactive use of the term, and is not a straightforward substitute for "new Christian" or "newly converted." In fact, it falls short as metonymy. For example, the nominal language used to describe the community as found in the Valencian decree of expulsion is an example of the retroactive use of language to describe all baptized descendants of Muslims as one entire community and to justify their expulsion. The following is an excerpt:

> You are all aware of what I have through such long efforts tried to do toward the conversion of the Moriscos of this kingdom [Valencia]...and the edicts of grace that have been granted to them and the attempts that have been made to instruct them in our holy faith, and the little that has been accomplished, for we have not seen any of them convert, and they have instead merely increased their stubbornness....[Therefore,] I have resolved that all the Moriscos of that kingdom be expelled and sent to the land of the Berbers. ${ }^{615}$

This excerpt shows: the retroactive construction of this whole community as moriscos (leaving out the possibility that this can be interpreted as referring to only part of the community), and the idea of conversion of Christians after baptism (analyzed in Chapter 4). Nonetheless, this retroactive construction is the only discourse used to study these communities of Christians with their expelled fate a given.

Expulsion was known in the peninsula, given the fate of peninsular Jews. Yet, even in the years closest to the Valencian decree of 1609 there still seemed to be the possibility that this fate could be averted, if not for the Kingdom of Valencia, at least for the rest of the peninsula where these smaller (new) Christian populations were deemed less problematic, or where different regional dynamics existed. In Section 3.2, the fact that at such a late date the possibility of conversion was still thought possible, reveals that the difference

[^165]between old Christians and new Christians was not always considered unbreachable (or indelible), thus the hybridity and non-static quality of the language. Put differently, there were some who still thought that there was nothing indelible to new Christians that would prevent them from becoming "good and faithful Christians" or from being like other Christians in the peninsula.

Long before the decrees of expulsion were promulgated, the process of conquest guided the Spanish crown to the complete conversion to Christianity of the entire peninsula. In 1486, as the remaining Muslim stronghold in the peninsula was diminished, Pope Innocent VIII (r. 1484-1492) confirmed and then extended the earlier bull (1436) by Pope Eugene IV (r. 1431-1447) for the right of royal presentation and patronage for the Kingdom of Granada. Of interest in this papal bull is not the granting of these privileges, but the exhortation to complete the work of conquest through the conversion of their new subjects:

Innocent, Bishop, servant of the servants of God, for perpetual memory and propagation of the catholic faith, being with the curia in a meeting and looking for the increase of the Christian religion and the salvation of souls and the barbaric nations, the prison of the infidels and fervently hoping for their conversion, we do not cease in continuing our apostolic favors and graces to the catholic kings and princes, so that insisting in the most care for the glory of God, whose house they have accepted, and so that they are aware of the petitions of the Holy See for the salvation of their souls, we delightfully grant... ${ }^{616}$

The bull continued by stating that the clergy presented for the various positions should "acquire with their laudable lives the conversion of souls and the exhortation to a righteous life." 617 The 1486 bull, which granted the rights to found monastic houses in the newly conquered lands, reiterated this, in hopes that

[^166]by the example and preaching of the religious faithful to Christ of said monasteries, the habitants of the kingdom of Granada, after abandoning the Mohammedan error will be converted and instructed in the Christian Faith. ${ }^{618}$

In 1487 Pope Innocent VIII lauded the work of the king and queen and expected that they and their successors would continue to expel the Moors and other infidels:
you have reconquered many lands and places of the kingdom of Granada from the power of the Moors...and added them to the land of the catholic faith. 619

The continued fulfillment of this conversion trajectory, an important part of the ideology of Reconquista, would require the baptism of these Muslim communities.

Therefore, the negotiated capitulations of Granada signed in November 1491, which took effect after the transfer of power on 2 January 1492, are viewed with suspicion, especially regarding the autonomy in religion purported for those who would now be colonial subjects of the Christian king and queen. As seen in Section 1.3, the Capitulations for the surrender of Granada included several items relating specifically to the license for Muslims to practice Islam. These items were related to worship in the mosques, the process for women to convert to Christianity, the lack of compulsion in Christianity (for Muslims), and the threat of exile for Jews who did not seek baptism. The relevant items are quoted in full below:

They shall not allow any Christians to enter in the mosques of the Moors where they pray, without the consent of their officials, and anyone who enters otherwise shall be punished for it. ${ }^{620}$

It shall not be allowed for any person to mistreat, by deed or by word, any Christian man or woman who, previous to this treaty, has converted to Islam; and if any Moor has a wife who is a renegade [a Christian who converted to Islam], that person shall not be forced to became Christian against her will, and she shall be interviewed in the presence of Christians and Moors, and

[^167]her will shall be followed; and the same will be done with the boys and girls born to a Christian woman and a Moorish man. ${ }^{621}$

No Moor shall be forced to become Christian against his will. And if a woman in love, either married or a widow, should wish to become Christian, she shall not be allowed to until she is interviewed. ${ }^{622}$

The Jews who are natives of Granada and the Albaicín and its surrounding areas and all the other places covered by this agreement shall benefit from its contents, provided that those who do not convert to Christianity must leave to Berber lands within three years, starting from December 8 of this year. ${ }^{623}$

These capitulations were in place from 1492 to 1501. During this time the population of Granada was predominantly Muslim, but at the turn of the century, and after the helches incident and the first rebellion, the Granadan Muslims were given the choice of baptism or exile. Some opted for baptism, while others who had sought baptism prior to 1501 wanted to be treated differently from other Granadans who had sought baptism after the mandate. Specifically, they want to avoid the monikers "new Christian" or "newly converted," and desired to be treated as old Christians.

Therefore in Granada after 1501, there were three groups of Christians, each differentiated by the context of their baptism: first, baptized former Muslims (and their baptized descendants) who chose baptism prior to baptism being decreed; second, baptized former Muslims (and their baptized descendants) who chose baptism after the mandate; and third, those who were born into Christian households who likely were baptized as infants and emigrated to this region as a part of a repopulation effort and who were considered, or named, "old Christians." The new Christians who were baptized prior to 1501, as well as other new Christians who married old Christians believed that there

[^168]was a clear path, and possibility of a status change, from new to old. The language of "new" at this point was still non-static and had a transitional quality, thus surmountable.

In the early sixteenth century, the Church completed a large number of baptisms in a short amount of time on both sides of the Atlantic; therefore, the church had to deal with a large number of adults who were not instructed in the faith prior to baptism. These baptisms en masse, as earlier with Jews, created yet other new categories of Christians, the newly converted or new Christians of the Moors; thus, suspect Christians from the start. This would happen repeatedly across the peninsula as other Muslim populations were given the same choice. By the late 1520s, there were theoretically and theologically no free Muslims in the peninsula. In Granada, the descriptor "new" for this native community was initially used to distinguish them from other Christians who came to the Kingdom of Granada to repopulate the region, but who were not baptized descendants of the newly baptized or former Muslims. This was initially, for the first generation that was baptized, a distinction between a convert to the faith and one that had been "born into" the faith.

Because of the context of these mass baptisms, in the ensuing decades the Crown and the Church embarked on a program of cultural and religious assimilation and acculturation of the newly converted and their baptized descendants. Generally, the sense from the texts and the historiography was that this population fell short in their Christianity or continued obstinately and willfully to adhere to cultural and religious practices associated with Islam. Given the ultimate internal displacement of the baptized descendants of these Granadans after the second rebellion of the Alpujarras, and the exile of all Christians (baptized descendants of Muslims) from the entire peninsula, this acculturation and assimilation project may be judged a failure. However, the language study reveals that the possibility of conversion was thought possible throughout most of the sixteenth century; Christianization and acculturation was not always deemed impossible.

The price paid for the expulsions by the rest of the population in the peninsula was high as well. To them it felt as if part of their very self had been excised. By this is meant that Spain denied some of the Islamic elements of its broader socio-cultural milieu in order to exalt the Castilian elements. As Alain Milhou noted, the expulsions of these populations, as well as Jews before them, were part of simultaneous processes of

Europeanization and desemitization that began with the Catholic Monarchs and the establishment of the Spanish Inquisition and culminated over one hundred and thirty years later with Philip III and the expulsions. ${ }^{624}$ The desemitization process required the identification of certain elements as other in order then to get rid of them, as also external constructions of Spain as the other of Europe, as explained in Chapter 2.

Nonetheless, although there were historical processes that eventually led to the expulsions of members of these communities of Christians, there were also processes by which historians have reified these communities—baptized descendants of Muslims-into a community of so-called moriscos. The use of the term "morisco" presumes a narrative of the de facto impossibility of a whole community being Christian, or put differently, that a whole community, because of its resistance (or desired autonomy, or difference in customs), could only truly be Muslim—when in fact this may have been true for only part of the communities. This latter position is held both by Christians who did not want members of these communities of Christians as part of theirs (therefore making them non-Christian: at least not "good and faithful Christians"), and by scholars who favor the view that none of the Granadans became Christians, regardless of their baptism.

The use of the term "morisco" becomes theologically problematic and limiting since, in part, it diminishes the Christianity of this baptized population. Historiographically problematic, the (over)use of the term obfuscates the greatly nuanced use of terminology in the primary documents and the processes of othering of these communities. It is a missed opportunity to better understand how the expulsions of members of these Christian communities were justified discursively. Put differently, if the category of "morisco" was deemphasized, rather than seeing this conflict as an inter-religious clash, it can be seen as an intra-religious or intra-sociocultural tension or struggle. Therefore, how would scholars understand these communities if its members were studied as Christians, given their baptism, rather than through the former religion of their ancestors, Islam? In other words, how would the exile be seen if it were understood as Christians exiling Christians?

The results of the analysis in this chapter will demonstrate that the term "morisco" is problematic as a homogenizing term and problematic as metonymy; untangling the

[^169]historical terminology from its historiographical uses is needed. In what follows, this is done first through a quantitative analysis of how the primary documents in fact referred to this community. This analysis shows that in the documents under study, the primary way of describing this community was as the "newly converted" or "new Christians." Furthermore, to better illustrate the terms used to describe this community, before and after their baptism, it is also useful to quantify the use of the terms "Moor" (and related words) and "morisco," and compare these to the use of the phrases "newly converted" or "new Christians". This is done quantitatively-yet, the numbers are used in a catachrestic manner: qualitatively.

### 3.1 Granada's "Morisco"

The following section analyses eighty-two Granadan primary documents in order to identify the language they use to refer to various groups. This is done as a first step in the process of untangling the historical from the historiographical, the problematic homogenizing use of the term "morisco" by historians, or what is deemed a disconnection between the primary texts and the usage by historians. Therefore, since the initial concern is with the language used to refer to the Granadan community in the texts, an extensive inventory of all the referential phrases, before and after baptism, and other contrasted or similar communities (as Muslims or as Christians) is included in table form in Appendix 1. The phrases are then tallied in Appendix 2.

Of the eighty-two documents seventy-five relate to events prior to the second rebellion of the Alpujarras and the remaining seven are from during or after the rebellion. ${ }^{625}$ All of the documents in the inventory have to do with the Kingdom of Granada. The primary documents are found in the appendices of six works on the Church in the Kingdom of Granada in the sixteenth century. ${ }^{626}$ Documents that are duplicated in

[^170]the various appendices are not counted twice, but it is noted when they are found in multiple sources. The appendices of several of these works ${ }^{627}(1-3,5)$ explicitly make a connection between the contemporaneous evangelization in Granada and across the Atlantic.

The primary texts analyzed for this project are readily available and known. Therefore, they are texts that can be (re)read using the tools presented in Section 2.3; the originality in the analysis is in the way they are (re)read. The collections of documents were chosen for other various reasons, including the fact that they were published as part of works referring to the community of Granadans which are being studied here. Since the documents are found with corresponding analysis, it can be shown in a straightforward way how the language of the primary texts is at times set aside or not used in the secondary analysis. This disconnection is part of the historiographical problematizing explored in Chapter 4. Another reason to use these documents is that they are often referred to in other works, since they are in easily accessible collections. Yet, those scholars who only have access to the secondary texts may be unaware of the difference in terminology in the primary texts from the corresponding analysis or citation, as well as the processes of construction this obfuscates—and may thus accept "morisco" as an appropriate term or metonymy. Finally, the quantitative analysis is used to support empirical observations; when an empirical observation is gleaned from the texts, it is ascertained whether that observation is supported quantitatively. This is an illustrative, albeit numerical, way to test and apply conclusions.

The inventory of the 82 documents is generally in chronological order. ${ }^{628}$ Each document is numbered 1 through 83 (with 72 missing), the source of the document is noted, and the page number of the Appendix, in its own book, is provided, as well as the specific inventory of phrases from that document. Each item on the inventory (even if it has multiple phrases of interest) is given a reference number (ref.). In the footnotes and in this text, references to phrases from the inventory table are given by the document number and the phrase-reference number. For example, the first instance of "derechos moriscos" (Moorish fees) in Document 3 is referenced as 3.4, whereas the phrase

[^171]"nuevamente convertidos de moros" (newly converted of the Moors) in Document 30 would have two references: 30.13 and 30.20 . The inventory includes phrases that describe Granadans before and after baptism, as well as phrases that describe other Muslims or other Christians. Since the project has an interest in the term "morisco," it is also noted and counted in every instance.

As has been presented before, a reminder about the use of italics and "quotation" marks: all mentions of the terms as "terms" are in "quotation" marks. When used as "terms" the words "new," "newly," "old," "Moor," "mudéjar" and "morisco" are both in "quotation" marks and italicized; if they are used in the text without being addressed as "terms" they are still italicized without "quotation" marks—this is to alert the reader to the language throughout the text. If the term "morisco" is used in a descriptive way translatable as Moorish in English, there may be a substitution; otherwise the term "morisco" is retained. If it is a direct quotation from the primary text, then italics are not used.

## Terminology in the Primary Texts

Counting the terminology produces data that can be used for the following purposes: detecting changes in the language used to refer to these communities, which allows for the identification of processes of construction of these communities as otherprocesses necessary in order to discursively justify the expulsions of members of these Christian communities from the peninsula; and, confirming the hypothesis that there exists a disconnection between the language of the primary texts and the language used to refer to these communities by some historians.

In Section 3.1, counting the number of instances of the phrases "newly converted" or "new Christian" is not in itself quantitatively significant. This counting becomes significant when compared to the number of instances other terminology was used, and later when compared to the instances of similar terminology in a different set of documents and from a different context. Furthermore, it becomes relevant when compared to the terminology used by historians in the corresponding analysis in the same books. Now, referencing the occurrences serves to support the empirical observation that these phrases were not outliers in the primary texts.

The numerical analysis of the Granadan primary texts is first done by quantifying the language used to refer to the community of Granadans. This counting exercise is the foundation for the evaluation of the conclusions with the contrasting language used for Amerindians and for other communities of baptized descendants of Muslims. This then elucidates the construction of difference (othering) in the peninsula. Finally, together the language analysis and processes of construction help to unearth the disconnection with the language historians use for these communities. These elements build upon each other. In short, this is an analysis of how the phrases "new Christian" and "newly converted" become "morisco," and the difficulties in using "morisco" to substitute for the phrases "new Christian" and "newly converted." For historians "morisco" becomes a metonymy for "new Christian" and "newly converted;" yet, in the primary texts "morisco" was not a metonymy for "new Christian" and "newly converted."
"Newly Converted," "New Christians," and "Old Christians"
In the eighty-two documents, the Granadan community was referred to after baptism and before the second rebellion of the Alpujarras primarily with the phrases "newly converted" or "new Christians." Combined, these phrases occurred at least 248 times in 58 documents, 103 times for "new Christian," and 145 times for "newly converted." There were ten documents in which both phrases were used. ${ }^{629}$ At times the terms were further qualified to specify the "newly converted of this kingdom" (six instances in six documents) or the "newly converted of the Moors" (seventeen instances in seven documents); ${ }^{630}$ the same happens with "new Christian"-"new Christian of the Moors" (four instances in three documents). ${ }^{631}$ One of these was doubly qualified, "new Christians of the Moors of the Kingdom of Granada" (64.24). Muslims were not the only persons who became new Christians through baptism. There were two other communities of "new Christians" or "newly converted" referred to in the documents. The first was "new

[^172]Christians of the Jews" (30.21, 58.2); the second "new Christians of the mudéjares" or "newly converted mudéjares," meaning those from outside Granada. ${ }^{632}$

The term "mudéjar" was most often used in these texts to refer to Muslims living under Christian rule in realms conquered prior to 1492. Therefore, generally, whenever the term "mudéjar" was used in these documents it referred to a group or person from the Kingdom of Castile (64.24, 65.4), although in many texts not dealt with here "mudéjar" tends more commonly to be used in the Kingdom of Valencia prior to the decreed baptisms of the late 1520s. This was not clear in Document 8 from 1511, in which the term "mudéjar" appeared five times, all instances referring to two former scholars of Islamic law that were newly converted prior to 1501. These scholars could have been from Granada or have emigrated from other regions. ${ }^{633}$ In Document 14 from 1513, there was an admonition from Queen Joanna to both old Christian tailors and mudéjar tailors (14.3, used as Muslim) to stop making morisco clothing; this was because they were acting as if the prior prohibition to the newly converted (Granadans) did not apply to them.

There was an expectation that anyone coming into Granada, regardless of religion, had to wear the costume (dress) of old Christians (e.g. Castilians). Document 38 from 1530 stated that "all the mudejares, women and new Christians that travel to [the] kingdom [of Granada, must] wear the costume (dress) of old Christians" (38.6). The use of the term "mudéjar" in this case may be ambiguous with regards to religion, since it occurs after all Muslims were required to seek baptism or be exiled, yet it is clear with respect to being a community from outside of Granada, therefore requiring differentiation. Finally, there was one instance in which the term "mudéjar" was used to mean "Christian" but was distinguished from "new Christians" (of Granada): "If among the old Christians or mudéjares there are some rebels...write them and call them on a roll as the new Christians." ${ }^{334}$ The use of "mudéjar" in this case may also indicate that it was a

[^173]634 Document 74.15.
problematic subset of the communities. Discussed later in this chapter with respect to the decrees of expulsion, the community(ies) in the Valle de Ricote (Murcia) were termed "moriscos mudéjares." ${ }^{635}$

The following observations result from this initial evaluation of the phrases "newly converted" and "new Christians." First, these phrases were not outliers in the texts. And second, these phrases were not used as place-holders for the term "Muslim." For example, the subset of the qualified "newly converted" or "new Christians" phrases with "of the Moors" or "of the mudéjares" reinforces the unambiguous theological stance that through baptism these communities were understood to no longer be Muslim. Although the documents clearly expressed some anxiety over deficiencies in practice and belief, these real or perceived deficiencies did not diminish the efficacy or indelibility of baptism itself. The Christianity of these persons and the quality of their Christianity are understood as two different subjects at this point of the analysis.

Document 29 from 1526 includes many of the uses of the phrases "newly converted" and "new Christians" described above. In 1526, during a visit to Granada, Charles was alarmed by what he perceived as Christians who were not adhering fully to a Christian way of life (or put differently, who were still considered to be maintaining Islamic rites and practices). Therefore, Charles commissioned a survey of the community of the newly converted in the Kingdom. The stated reason for this survey was that,

The newly converted of [Granada] and of the other cities, villages and places of this archbishopric, had received the water of baptism of the Holy Spirit, had done and committed and every day continued to commit many grave things against our holy catholic faith, following their damaged first sect of Muhammad and its errors and ceremonies, of which I have been informed through letters and petitions. Therefore, in order to provide punishment for the past and remedy for the future... [a group should be named to inform themselves] on what things and cases that the newly converted of the Moors in the archbishopric followed the damaged sect of Muhammad and its errors and ceremonies. ${ }^{636}$

[^174]In the document from which the above excerpt is taken, the phrase "newly converted" was used to refer to this community (twenty-three times); the community was not referred to as either "moro" or "morisco" (n.) even though they were accused of still practicing Islam: supporting the view that they were thought to be Christians, or thought of as Christians (albeit deficiently so). Similarly, when the word "Moor" was used in the document, it was to refer to a "Muslim" or being "of Muslims." Therefore, it can be concluded that the failure lay not in the baptism, but in the practice, and the failure in practice was due, in part, to the lack of enforcement and the perceived or real adherence to cultural and religious practices associated with Islam, not a failure of the "water of baptism."

This survey of the newly converted was twenty-five years after the required baptisms of 1501; in this document the beginnings of the tension between baptism, instruction, and conversion can also be gleaned. Another contributing factor, which began to emerge and is discussed in Section 3.3, was the dearth of priests working with this community and the poor instruction of priests and congregants alike. This latter issue was one that affected all Christians in the peninsula, not just Christian descendants of Muslims. The Congregation of 1526 yielded a series of recommendations on how to improve this community's adherence to Christianity: the establishment of the Inquisition in Granada, the recognition of the wrongs committed against new Christians (by old Christians), and the encouragement to build the churches that remained to be built. ${ }^{637}$ Furthermore, in the recommendations there were prohibitions, specific to these communities, against: owning Christian slaves, the Arabic language and writing, the wearing of morisco clothing (especially for women), using henna, halal butchering, and the giving of names or nicknames of the Moors (nombres y sobrenombres de moros). ${ }^{638}$ The Congregation of 1526 also issued a requirement to translate contracts and deeds from Arabic to Castilian. Shortly after these recommendations were made, a forty-year grace period of enforcement

[^175]was obtained from Charles because of a negotiated grace obtained through the payment of a large sum of money. ${ }^{639}$

Many of the recommendations and concerns from 1526 were not new. As seen in the correspondence of Queen Joanna in 1511-1513, many of these had already been noted. ${ }^{640}$ That these concerns were ongoing seems significant, making the differences relevant as well. When reading the texts chronologically, patterns and processes begin to emerge. For example, the onset of the use of the category of "new Christians" or "newly converted" was obviously a direct result of the required baptisms after 1501. These required baptisms were after the helches incident and the resulting rebellions throughout the Kingdom of Granada, which led to the promulgation of new capitulations, or abrogation of the 1492 Capitulations. ${ }^{641}$ These new capitulations (1499-1501) decreed baptism and required the exile of the Granadan Muslims who did not seek the rite. Therefore, after the capitulations took effect, in technical terms, there were no free Muslims remaining in the Kingdom of Granada. Given this new context, therefore, references to Muslims would have to be to a time prior to the new capitulations. This then brings out the fact that there was room for varied terminology while at the same time there would be a movement toward fixidity. Put differently, as shown in Chapter 2, this may be seen as a period of time in which maurophilia and maurophobia co-existed, as posited by Barbara Fuchs. ${ }^{642}$

From 1492 until 1501 there would have been a greater number of terms used to refer to various communities, since there were both Muslims and Christians living in Granada, native or from other regions, and with the change in political control, there would have been a need to refer to the Nasrids differently than to the Christian monarchs. Yet, the terminology could match other parallel contexts that had existed before: the bi/tripartite matrix based on religious difference. Nonetheless, with the decreed baptisms, the fluidity in language that existed during the period of time when Muslims remained in the kingdom waned and increasingly the Granadans would be referred to as "new Christians" (cristianos nuevos). Often the adverbial form was used and this community was called the

[^176]"newly converted," or more specifically the "newly converted from or of the Moors" (de moros/from the Moors). Eventually, the use of the word "new" was anachronistic, since it was also used of the baptized descendants of the initial group of people who were baptized, as well as after multiple generations, leading to the question: when would these Christians stop being called "new Christians" or "newly converted"? ${ }^{643}$

What then can be ascertained regarding the qualifications "new" and "newly" is that notwithstanding the fact of baptism, which removed the religious distinction between Muslim and Christian, the need emerged or remained to distinguish these particular Christians from other Christians, or put differently, to keep the two communities separated, in a way that matched the previous religious matrix. The Christians who were former Muslims and their baptized descendants had to be qualified as "new" (as had been done with Jews before them), and their counterparts required the use of the term "other" or "old" to specify the community of Christians, those with a longer Christian genealogy, who were likely from outside of Granada and had come to repopulate the region. Although it had earlier been seen with the baptized descendants of Jews, this was the first step in what would be seen as a proliferation of language, the beginning of the processes of (re)inscription for this community: the processes of the construction of the other within the Christian community rather than from without (inter- vs. intra-).

Now, after beginning to identify processes of (re)inscription, understanding the contrast of the terms "new" and "old" with "Christians" can be ascertained more easily. Naturally, the difference between new and old Christians was quickly codified, since it easily corresponded to the communities that were divided by religion before (or by region). The separation (and dependence of one on the other, thus hierarchy) of the two communities, can be seen in the rite of baptism and the method of butchering meat. As Francisco Núñez Muley wrote in 1523, ${ }^{644}$ and as had been commanded in the letters from Queen Joanna a decade before, there was a requirement that the godparents for the descendants of former Muslims be old Christians. ${ }^{645}$ This was problematic at various levels, at least discursively. First, it infringed on the autonomy of the community; second, there were places where there were few old Christians and they would have to bring in an

[^177]old Christian from another location, which created "much aggravation and damages... [and had] many costs and expenses"; and, the theological fact was pointed out rhetorically that any of the newly converted could be a godparent "since they were already Christians and had turned to our holy catholic faith." ${ }^{646}$

The phrase "old Christian" was one side of the binary new/old, although it was not always used with its counterpart. Although the phrases "new Christian" and "old Christian" together are an implied binary, the use of the phrase "old Christian" was more often juxtaposed to "newly converted" and not to "new Christian." The newly converted were exhorted to learn from (see 9.1) and follow the practices of old Christians (see 10.1, 10.45). This makes sense in the early texts given that the Granadans were indeed newly converted, and the phrase "newly converted" can be understood temporally and transitionally in contrast to "old Christian." For example, in Document 11 regarding morisco clothing, there is a sense that the newly converted needed to abandon the clothing of their recent past and use the clothing that matches their new religion. ${ }^{647}$

There are 118 mentions of old Christians in 25 documents. ${ }^{648}$ Old Christians were presumed not to be descendants of Muslims or Jews and in the case of Granada, generally, had arrived to repopulate the region after 1492 and often were Castilians. The documents included other ways to refer to these old Christians (fifteen occurrences in five documents). At times, they used the term "Christian" without qualification ${ }^{649}$ or with a qualification other than "old." Additional phrases used were "other Christians" (4.11), "other Christian vassals" (3.7, 4.4, 4.6), "other Christian neighbors" (3.10, 3.12, 3.16, 3.18), "faithful" or "good" or "honest Christians" (26.1, 32.1, 32.4, 32.9, 75.5), and "cristiano de

[^178]nación" (32.5, 32.9). Many of the latter references were from Document 32, dated to prior to 1507, whose aim was to exhort the newly converted to become a particular kind of Christian: "good and faithful."

The quantitative look at the phrases "newly converted" and "new Christian" yields the following relevant empirical observations, which begin to unravel the sixteenth-century belief that a person or community could change religion, and thus that conversion and baptism could be separated or dissociated from one another. In the specific context of Spain, which had ways for how to deal with a plurality of religions, the framework of religion (a matrix of difference based on religion) became an obstacle to the belief that a change in religion was possible historically and historiographically. More clearly, the qualifications of "new" or "newly" initially had a literal and textual sense of temporality and, thus, fluidity or mutability. Yet, this sense of fluidity was antithetical to the fixidity or immutability of the religious matrix by which many things in the society had previously been defined and organized (and the way they are still studied). Therefore, in a way, "new Christian" or "newly converted" became a (re)inscription of a religious otherness different than Christian and thus eventually and ultimately fixed (nominalization). The next transition would be from "new Christian" or "newly converted" to "morisco."

## Moriscos and Moors

The tabulation of the phrases "new Christian" and "newly converted" begins to support the observation that the language used to refer to this community had a variety that would increasingly be lost. At this stage this fluidity can also be seen in other terms used in the Granadan primary documents. To do this demonstration, the quantitative overview of the phrases "newly converted" and "new Christians" is now contrasted with the uses of the term "morisco" in its nominal and descriptive forms. The term "morisco" was used in 31 documents ( $37.8 \%$ of the 82 tabulated; compared to 58 documents, or $70.7 \%$, for "newly converted" or "new Christian"), for a total of 72 instances. ${ }^{650}$ "Morisco" in a nominal form occurred 37 times in 20 documents ( $24.1 \%$ of the documents). ${ }^{651}$ Of the 37 occurrences, seven were specific to female moriscas. ${ }^{652}$ "Morisco" used in a descriptive

[^179]way occurred 35 times in 16 documents (19.3\%). ${ }^{653}$ As a ratio, "morisco" in its nominal form was used once for every 6.7 times "newly converted" or "new Christian" was used. ${ }^{654}$ Nevertheless, as explored later, the preferred term used by historians for these communities (in the analysis of the very texts used in this study) is "morisco" and not "newly converted" or "new Christian," even as far as historians justifying the use of " morisco" over "newly converted" or "new Christian." 655
"Morisco" appeared in both forms, nominal and descriptive, in five documents. ${ }^{656}$ "Morisco" in its nominal form appeared 15 times in eight documents that also used the phrases "newly converted" or "new Christian" to refer to this community (71 occurrences); this was a ratio of once for every 4.7 occurrences. ${ }^{657}$ Even though the phrases and word were both used, the way the term "morisco" (n.) was used was not consistent and was not equated to "newly converted" or "new Christian." Five of the "morisco" (n.) mentions in these documents were for female new Christians; ${ }^{658}$ also, seven of the 15 were negative uses of the term—referring to a subset of the community, and thus not used interchangeably; ${ }^{659}$ the final three uses did not diminish the Christianity of these new Christians: in Document 30, in two instances, there was a recommendation that old Christians bury moriscos, and in Document 48 there were references to moriscos being encouraged to marry old Christians. ${ }^{660}$ Other than a lack of uniformity, there was no significant pattern for the use of "morisco" at this point. Different from the nominative mode, "morisco" as a descriptor appeared in 11 documents that also used the phrases "newly converted" or "new Christian." 661 Since these uses were descriptive they could not be substituted for "newly converted" or "new Christian."

[^180]Therefore, from the above it can be noted that in 17 of the 82 (20.7\%) documents there were various combinations of "morisco," in the nominal and descriptive forms, as well as "newly converted" or "new Christian"; 662 in one out of five documents, the terms "morisco" and "newly converted" or "new Christian" coexisted, but were not co-terminus. In this group of texts, there were no documents after 1544 in which several of the terms coexisted, specifically the term "morisco" (n.) plus the phrases "newly converted" or "new Christian." Moreover, more than half of the documents (35) used only the phrases "newly converted" or "new Christian"; the use of these phrases was much greater than the term "morisco."

In observing the use of the terminology in conjunction with the date of the documents, a chronology of the usage of the various terms begins to emerge. For example, closer to the time of the initial baptisms "morisco" in its descriptive form could coexist with "newly converted" or "new Christian" because it was referring to something religiously or culturally related to their prior religion or political context: in English, the relationship between "Moor" and "Moorish." Eventually, "morisco" substituted for "newly converted" or "new Christian" without the possibility of fully reverting to Moor, as Muslim. This was a subtle shift that can be easily missed if the term "morisco" is substituted too hastily for "newly converted" or "new Christian.". Put differently, the term "morisco" shifts in meaning from relating to the term "Moor" (as Muslim) to gaining a type of hybridity and fluidity shared with "newly converted" or "new Christian" to then fully substituting for "newly converted" or "new Christian" and then to not begin able ever again to revert to "Moor" (as Muslim).

In addition to the usage in documents where terms co-existed, and continuing to build on the chronology of usage, prior to the second rebellion of the Alpujarras the uses of the term "morisco" as a noun were varied. The term "morisco" was not always used with a negative connotation. For example, in a 1559 document there was an instance of a positive use of the term "morisco" in contrast to old Christians-a remark that it was easier to collect rent from moriscos than from old Christians (70.1). Yet, many other references

[^181]to moriscos tend to be negative: for example, drunken moriscos (two mentions), moriscos committing offences against the faith, or moriscos wearing the wrong clothes. ${ }^{663}$

At times the textual sense was that moriscos were a subset of the Granadan community, rather than of the whole community of new Christians. Thus, it is surmised that historians studying moriscos are studying a subset of a series of communities. For example, when addressing the benefits of old and new Christians marrying, one of the benefits was that communications amongst moriscos would cease (43.9); the same sentence included the phrases and term "new Christian," "old Christian," and "moriscos." A similar instance though, had old Christians marrying moriscos(as) (48.4, x2) rather than new Christians. From this it may be inferred that new Christians were becoming like other Christians, but that moriscos needed to be further influenced by old Christians.

In Document 65 there was a sense that moriscos could be done away with if the right inquisitorial steps were taken (65.3). Perhaps then moriscos were subject to the Inquisition but new Christians were not. Perhaps at this point the term "morisco" only referred to the part of the community that was considered recalcitrant, and that by using the term "morisco" historiographically for the whole rather than for parts of the communities those that were new Christians were erased (meaning not narrated)—an example of which can be read in the decrees of expulsion (and related documents). ${ }^{664}$

Given these examples, when the term "morisco" increasingly lost its connection to "moro," as referential to the entire community of baptized descendants of Muslims, "morisco" carried with it the negative connotations of deficiencies in religion or character. Yet there was a time when this coexisted with a sense that these so-called deficiencies may have been found only in a subset of the whole community. There was an increased unease with the correspondence of the phrases "newly converted" or "new Christian" to the reality or perceived or discursive reality of the communities, and which aligned with an increased use of the term "morisco," still not exclusively but increasingly so. With the second rebellion, the shift would increasingly become fixed and magnified.

[^182]Quantifying the incidence of the various terms helps to create a mental map of the shifts in the language: ${ }^{665}$

```
"moro/Muslim" prior to 1501
    "new Christian" or "newly converted" (through baptism) and
    "morisco" (n.) from 1501 to 1571, inversely progressing
"morisco" after }1571\mathrm{ and used for the expulsions and beyond.
```

With this mental map, various documents can be read within an additional context. For example, Document 75 by Luis del Mármol Carvajal relating events from 1566 may be considered a transitional document, because although it related events prior to the rebellion it was written after 1568-1571, in fact closer to 1600. In this document, the word "morisco" was used in similar contexts to which the phrases "newly converted" or "new Christian" had appeared in previous documents. Therefore, the fact that the term "morisco" was used instead is textually significant; it is an example of an imposition of a later term when relating earlier events.

In Document 75, the descriptive use of the term "morisco" (Moorish), such as "vestidos moriscos" was used as had been done before. Furthermore, the phrase "en tiempo de moros" was used to refer to a time prior to the baptisms and conquest, as has been noted. This supports the sense that the descriptive use of the term "morisco" tends to be less problematic than the nominal form. Yet there were subtle changes with respect to subjects and themes that had been addressed before. For example, after the Congregation of 1526 there was a prohibition for the newly converted to have Muslim slaves:

Likewise, by our letter it is now provided and mandated again that none of the newly converted have in their homes or in their estates Muslim slaves; we mandate that this is kept. ${ }^{666}$

This prohibition was reiterated by Luis del Mármol Carvajal (in 1600), but instead of using the phrase "newly converted" the term "morisco" was used:

With respect to the gacís, it was provided that those that were free and those that were rescued or would be rescued, cannot live in the entire kingdom of

[^183]Granada, and within six months of being rescued leave it; and that the moriscos not have gací slaves even if they had license to have them. ${ }^{667}$

Furthermore, keeping the subtlety of the terminology in mind, Luis del Mármol Carvajal did not need to use the term "old Christian" since it did not use the counterpart "newly converted" or "new Christian:" instead he used "faithful Christians." Seeing these subtle changes then shows how the last use of the term "morisco" in this document was a complete negative substitution of "morisco" for "newly converted" or "new Christian," thus displaying the more completed process toward the impossibility of conversion. Mármol Carvajal wrote,

This was the resolution taken at the Junta, although some were of the mind that all of the recommendations not be enacted all at once, since the moriscos are so wedded to their customs, and because they would not feel it so much if they were taken away little by little. ${ }^{668}$

What is seen in Document 75 is repeated in documents from during and after the second rebellion. For example, nominative references to moriscos (11 of 37) now had the negative connotation of a community that rebelled or was the name given to the community as a whole: the rising of the moriscos $(77.1,83.1)$, the rebellion of the moriscos (77.2, 83.2), and the rebelled moriscos (81.3). The communities were no longer the newly converted or the new Christians, but the morisco community. The possibility remained that there was a portion of the community that was not included because they did not rebel, but these seem to be erased or not exist or, at least, were not narrated.

In documents 78 and 79 there were three unusual instances of the term "moro/Moor" being used to substitute for "morisco": "whom the Moors killed" (78.1), "since the Moors stole their houses" (78.2), and "the fruits and cattle stolen and destroyed by the Moors" (79.2). These references have to do with the costs of the second rebellion. As will be demonstrated later, these were the only three instances in this collection of texts in which the use of the term "moro" was ambiguous. These may well be substituting for or

[^184]referring to outside forces who were indeed Muslim, supporting the accusation that they got help from North Africa.

Most of the above analysis of the term "morisco" was for the nominative form of the word. The other way the term "morisco" was used was in a descriptive manner (35 occurrences) and may be divided into two senses: the religious sense (things associated with Islam), and the socio-cultural sense (practices associated with the Granadan community which were not considered solely religious observances). ${ }^{669}$ In the documents there were eight references to rites and ceremonies of the Moors, whereas there were 27 references to other customs of the Moors. Of the latter 27 references, 20 had to do specifically with the manner of dress, or morisco clothing. ${ }^{670}$ For centuries, Christians from Castile were accustomed to Muslims in their region using the "Castilian" mode of dress and even language: therefore, they had the expectation that Granadans could and would also adopt this specific regional mode as a Christian mode of dress that matched their new religion. ${ }^{671}$ The issue of Moorish dress is very important in trying to understand the actual degree of difference that existed between new and old Christians. Dress can be seen as an external marker of difference that could be changed. Adherence to morisco dress (or regional costume) was equated by some to adherence to Islam, yet dress could be changed and, if changed, difference would be reduced between the two communities: thus, difference at this point was not yet inherent or indelible.

The concern with clothing was an important subject in the texts and often appeared specifically in relation to new Christian women. Regarding women, the nominal and descriptive forms of "morisco" also had particular foci and uses. ${ }^{672}$ The nominal form of the term "morisco" appeared in the texts seven times specifically referring to moriscas. ${ }^{673}$ These were not the only mentions of women in the documents, but these specifically used the term "morisca." The first mention, in Document 30 from 1526, had to do with a

[^185]${ }^{673}$ Documents 30.9, 35.1-2, 38.7, 48.4, 76.5, 76.13.
"partera morisca" (30.9) or a morisca midwife who was required to perform her duties in the presence of an old Christian; this was like the old-Christian godparent and butcher requirements from the 1510s. In Document 35 from 1530 the use of the term "morisca" differentiates these women from newly converted mudéjares from outside of Granada (35.1-2). ${ }^{674}$ The grievance in Document 35 was that women who were baptized outside of Granada and who were accustomed to wearing old Christian clothing were wearing morisco clothing once they came to Granada: this was seen as a step backwards. They were mandated to "abandon said morisco costumes and don the costume of old Christians [f.] as they had before" (35.3). Three other mentions had to do with morisco clothing, and two of these specifically dealt with the issue of women covering their faces. Face covering was seen as a threat. ${ }^{675}$ The final mention of a morisco, discussed later, is related to intermarriage (48.4).

As can be seen above, five of the seven mentions of moriscas were primarily related to their manner of dress, habit, costume, or clothing, or in the morisco manner (hábito/vestido/ropa morisca or a la morisca). ${ }^{676}$ The issue of morisco clothing was the predominant issue related to women in the documents. When seen through the lens of clothing, the concerns with women in these documents come into greater focus and exceed the relatively few uses of the term "morisca." Although connected to three instances of the term "morisca," face covering was mentioned an additional ten times in five documents. ${ }^{677}$ Face covering was related to the use of marlotas or almalafas, but these specific pieces of clothing were not always mentioned in the same documents that refer to face covering. ${ }^{678}$

Although there's not an abundance of specific mentions of female baptized descendants of Muslims, there seems to be a possibility that women were more likely to be referred to as moriscas since their mode of dress was problematic at various levels,

[^186]and as Francisco Núñez Muley alludes, women wore Moorish dress more readily than men ${ }^{679}$ —perhaps a difference between the private and public sphere. Otherwise women were subsumed (meaning not narrated or differentiated) by the more general terms of "newly converted" or "new Christian," unless their specific behavior needed to be noted. Moreover, this may be considered (by others) something specifically gendered and could be explored around the suspicion of women and especially women who were "hiding" under Moorish dress. The issue of the manner of dress in general and for women again reinforces that for some a change in external appearance was expected to yield a lessening of difference. Yet, when old or new Christians wore Moorish dress, threatening issues of passing come to the fore and could be explored.

Continuing to analyze the 35 occurrences of the descriptive use of the term "morisco," translated into English as Moorish, it is noted that 20 of these 35 instances (or $57.1 \%)^{680}$ have to do with Moorish clothing and the expectation that once baptized members of these communities would abandon morisco clothing for old Christian modes (or for other regional or Castilian modes). Furthermore, when looked at more closely, the descriptive use of the term "morisco," with respect to clothing, changes, or shifts. Whereas in the earlier documents the term "morisco" was more closely related to a descriptive form of "Moor," later it gained the nuanced hybridity of the latter descriptive or nominative uses of "morisco." For example, in Document 11 from 1511, dressing in the manner of the old Christians and abandoning morisco clothing was tantamount to leaving behind the "things of the Moors" (11.1) or the clothing they used to wear in the "time of the Moors" (11.2) or in the "manner of the Moors" (11.3, see also 14.2). Again, the expectation was that baptism would lead to the abandoning of Muslim religious or social or regional customs including morisco dress (all external markers): "that the newly converted abandon the Moorish costume and dress and don the dress and manner of the Christians" (15.1). In short, here "morisco" was clearly meant to signify things from the time prior to baptism: this changed as the century progressed.

For example, for Castilians, morisco dress was especially frowned upon for the newly converted mudéjares. As seen in documents 35 and 36 from 1530, for mudéjares the donning of morisco dress was especially egregious since they had previously worn

[^187]clothing in the manner of old Christians when they lived outside of Granada. Here, as in the cases where "morisco" and "mudéjar" were used as contrasting terms, a distinction was being made between the Kingdom of Granada and other realms-where the term "morisco" was specific to Granada. Yet, "morisco," especially as a negative term, would only gain ground after 1571 and outside of Granada, given the internal displacement and the ongoing processes of construction (othering). The use of "moriscos granadinos" is seen in the expulsion-related documents presented in Section 3.4.

A few decades after the decreed baptisms, the concern with clothing seems to have waned. Of the nine documents that specifically mention morisco clothing or style (20 times), seven of these documents ( 17 mentions or $85 \%$ ) were from before 1530. This indicates that the issue of clothing discursively diminished, although it is brought up again in documents 75 and 76. As noted before, Document 75 poses a challenge regarding the chronology of the content and the date when the document was written; yet, it referred to morisco clothing as the documents from 1530 and earlier did. In fact, Document 75 made a clear connection between morisco clothing and the "time of the Moors," ${ }^{681}$ clothing that must be abandoned once a Christian (75.2, 72.4), as was the case in Document 11 above. For various reasons Document 76 is different than other documents, especially about the preferred term referential to this community as natives (naturales). Francisco Núñez Muley argues forcefully that any morisco (as Moorish) practice found in Granada must first be seen as a regional custom, rather than an indication of actively practicing Islam, as explored later in this section.

With an understanding of the nominal and descriptive uses of the term "morisco" it is important to also look at its relationship to the term "moro." As seen in the Introduction, in the sixteenth century the term "morisco" was related to the term "moro." ${ }^{682}$ In its origins the word "Moor" had a regional and ethnic connotation, not a religious one, yet in the primary texts of concern here, the term "Moor" was used overwhelmingly to denote Muslim and the term "morisco" was used as a descriptor. ${ }^{683}$ For example, in the first instance, Moor was differentiated religiously from Christian or Jew. After the Capitulations of 1492

[^188]and before the first rebellions, "Moor" continued to be used to refer to Muslims. For example, the injunction that a Moor cannot enter city hall (ayuntamiento) on a Friday used "Moor" as equivalent to Muslim. ${ }^{684}$ Another example showing that the use of the term "Moor" referred to a Muslim can be seen when juxtaposed to Jew: "it cannot be either newly converted of the Moors or of the Jews." ${ }^{685}$ Here "Moor" was used to mean Muslim.

The text of the new capitulations, after the first rebellions, used the word "Moor" to refer to Muslims, and still used the term "morisco" (adjective) as it related to "Moor" (n.), to refer to descriptions for the unbaptized Muslim community (moros). For example, the phrase "los derechos moriscos" (Moorish fees) was related to the original capitulations that required certain fees from the Muslim population that remained in the Kingdom of Granada after the fall of the Nasrids. Those who chose baptism would no longer be required to pay "derechos moriscos" and would be treated as "our other Christian vassals." ${ }^{686}$ The following paragraph summarizes this difference:
that the said moros of the Muslim quarter of Baza that convert to our holy catholic faith be exempt...as the other Christian neighbors of said city of Baza. ${ }^{687}$

As mentioned before, in a society accustomed to organizing tributes according to the subject's religion, a change in religion would not only have religious consequences but also fiduciary ones. Yet, it would become clear that new Christians and the newly converted would not be treated as "our other Christian vassals" because they were burdened not only with the fees collected from Christians (diezmos y primicias), but also with specific fees given their former ties (religious and political), such as farda. Moreover, if they could, they paid additional monies to the Crown in exchange for some level of

[^189]autonomy for their community in maintaining, as Francisco Núñez Muley asserts, practices that do not go against the holy Catholic faith, ${ }^{688}$ as was the case with the forty-year grace period negotiated at the end of 1526.

Moreover, the term "Moor" was used to refer to a time prior to 1492 when the Kingdom of Granada was ruled by the Nasrids. Two examples: "[t]hey pasture their cattle in the same places as they were accustomed during the time of the Moor kings" and "they sometimes butcher the meats in the way they were accustomed during the time of the Moors." ${ }^{689}$ There are further textual indications that the term "Moor" was used to refer to Muslims rather than to a political or ethnic identity. For example, when used as a political or prior affiliation it was qualified, as in the "time of the moors" (en tiempo de moros). Furthermore, to be more specific about the ethnicity of a Muslim, several documents refer to the Turks or the Berbers or the Ottomans.

The descriptive use of the term "morisco" (35 instances) can be compared with the descriptive use of the term "Moor" (22 instances) where 10 instances were specifically religious (compared to eight) and the remainder (12) were either referring to customs or were non-specific (compared to 27). In the nominative use of the term "moro," and after considering the three anomalies in documents 78 and 79 explained above-the use ( 44 times) of the term "Moor" was unambiguous: it referred to a Muslim. Differently, the use of the term "morisco" was much more varied.

Finally, in the documents inventoried there were 109 instances of the word "Moor." Of the 109 occurrences of the term "Moor," 64 were used as a qualifier: newly converted or new Christian "of the Moors" (23 examples), ${ }^{690}$ time "of the Moors" (15), ${ }^{691}$ or various

[^190]things or customs etc. "of the Moors" (26). ${ }^{692}$ This indicates that other than to refer to Muslim, the use of Moor was also to bring contextual specificity: time, custom, or community. Another 23 occurrences were of "Moor" in its nominative form. ${ }^{693}$ Of the remaining instances (22) there was the prohibition to refer to the newly converted as moro or mora, used as a slur (four times); ${ }^{694}$ also, there were references to a "captive Moor" (74.21) or "Moor slaves" (29.10), among others. ${ }^{695}$ There seems to be an inversely proportional relationship between "moro" and "morisco"; the increase in the use of the term "morisco" was matched by a decrease in the use of the term "Moor." This was also seen in the increased use of "morisco" (n.) matched by a decrease in the use of "newly converted" or "new Christian."

In the instances in which the newly converted were accused of adhering to practices, customs, etc. of the Moors, there still was a textual sense that in abandoning these practices they could become good and faithful Christians. However, in the documents there were four instances in which "Moor" was used for the newly converted to argue unambiguously for the fact that "they were not good and faithful Christians." In Document 44 there was a mention that "those new Christians are worse with our holy faith than when they were Moors" (44.4). In Document 47, Archbishop Gaspar de Ávalos argued that "their hearts are as Moor[ish] as before" (47.1) and that they "seem to be Moor residents without a king" (47.6). ${ }^{696}$ Finally, Document 62 stated that "they always have been until that day Moors and they never were Christians" (62.2). As mentioned before there is a problematic use of the term "Moor" in documents 78 and 79; it seems that the term "Moor" may have been substituted for the term "morisco." This confusion makes sense within the context of the ascendancy of the nominal form of the term "morisco" and the corresponding decrease in the appearance of the term "Moor" in its most common usage in the primary texts.

[^191]Documents 44, 47, and 62 are from 1530, 1532, and 1539 respectively. Following the shifts in language usage and meaning proposed, "Moor" as Muslim was initially the opposite of Christian, and the term "morisco" had not yet fully substituted for the phrases "new Christian" or "newly converted." When it did substitute, it indicated the increased impossibility of reverting to "Moor" or completely becoming Christian; thus, existing in a third space or space of hybridity, which allows for the proliferation of referential categories.

One of the ways to answer the question "how were the peninsular expulsions of some Christians, baptized descendants of Muslims, discursively justified?" is by identifying the sixteenth century (and beyond) processes of construction of these communities as other. These processes are unearthed by identifying the shifts in language usage and meaning. Yet, to elucidate these processes, the language used to refer to these communities historically has to be untangled from the historiographical language used to refer to one homogenous community (Chapter 4). Thus, the preceding quantification of the phrases "newly converted," "new Christian," and "old Christian," as well as the terms "morisco" and "moro," was the first step in this untangling process. Therefore, by identifying the actual referential language used, it can be demonstrated that there is a disconnection between the language used in the primary texts and the language used by historians, and then the focus can turn to the actual processes of construction. These steps build upon each other.

The quantitative analysis thus far has revealed that the preferred referential phrases to name these communities were "newly converted" or "new Christians." Moreover, these phrases were not initially or intentionally static in meaning, but retained the possibility of moving beyond the "new" or "newly," thus having non-static and hybrid qualities. Furthermore, the nominative use of the term "morisco" did not initially have the fixed meaning that it eventually came to have. As was presented above, the term "morisco" was used in varied ways: to differentiate from "mudéjar," as related to "Moor" (as Muslim); as a subset of the community. For the first two-thirds of the century the nominative use of "morisco" and the phrases "newly converted" or the "new Christians" could co-exist but were not co-terminus. The least problematic use of the term "morisco" was in its descriptive mode, which can be translated into English as "Moorish." On the other hand, the phrase "old Christian" and the term "moro" were fixed in meaning.

The quantitative language analysis leads to the conclusion that there existed shifts in language throughout the sixteenth century. These shifts corresponded to or were parallel to the construction of these communities as other. Initially, "new" and "newly" implied a process of transition. Yet, eventually, since the "new" or "newly" substituted for the previous religious matrix, it became a (re)inscription and was fixed. Then "morisco" substituted for "newly converted" or "new Christian." This later substitution occurred as the term "morisco" shifted in usage. Whereas initially "morisco" was related to "Moor" (as Muslim), as it became specifically tied to "newly converted" or "new Christian" it was ultimately superimposed onto these phrases. Therefore "morisco" became disconnected from "Moor" (as Muslim) and technically became incapable of reverting to Islam. Until after the expulsions, "morisco" became static in its hybridity; it was a third space term, denoting neither Muslim nor Christian.

## Beyond Newly Converted or New Christians and Moriscos

As seen above, the baptized descendants of Muslims were referred to in these documents primarily as "newly converted" or "new Christians;" rather than the fewer instances in which members of these communities were referred to with the term "morisco." Yet, other referential terms or phrases were also used: first as "natives" (naturales) of the Kingdom of Granada, and second as "Christians" like other Christians, without any additional qualification.

Document 76 is an excerpt from a longer plea by Francisco Núñez Muley to the Royal Audiencia of Granada and its president in 1567. Document 76 as inventoried and the complete document (Memorandum) as edited and translated by Vincent J. Barletta provide clues for understanding the Granadan communities. Important aspects of this document include that: it was written shortly before the second rebellion of the Alpujarras, thus giving a sense of the context on the eve of the rebellion; a new Christian wrote it; it recounts many of the negotiations that occurred in the previous decades, many of which are corroborated by the other inventoried documents. This document is also important for how it referred to the population of Granada, as "naturales," and how the author tried to differentiate between religious and socio-cultural practices.

In the process of reading the documents in chronological order and after dozens of documents and many references to new Christians and newly converted, as well as
contrasts between these aforementioned and old Christians, it is striking to encounter a different way of referring to the Christian Granadans as "natives" of the kingdom. ${ }^{697}$ The date of the document is also relevant, not only because it was written just prior to the rebellion, but also because it came at the end of the forty-year grace period of enforcement granted by Charles after the Congregation of 1526. New enforcement was going to be enacted beginning in 1567. January 1567 also marked the $75^{\text {th }}$ anniversary of the fall of the Kingdom of Granada. ${ }^{698}$

There were a few other references to natives in other documents: for example, in Document 74, from the Provincial Council of Granada of 1565, there were four mentions of the natives of Granada and three of these were contrasted with old Christians, likely Castilians. More specifically, the Council canons specified that they pertained to the parishes of old Christians as well as the parishes of the natives. ${ }^{699}$ Notwithstanding the use of native, different from Document 76, Document 74 was not consistent in its use and chiefly used new Christians (48 times) and contrasted these to old Christians.

Document 76 included 16 mentions of the Granadans as the natives; in the longer edited Memorandum there were at least 34 mentions of the "natives of this Kingdom."700 Similar to the descriptive use of the word "morisco," the term "native" was also used in a descriptive way, such as "native mode of dress" or "native clothing." 701 Although Francisco Núñez Muley predominantly used the term "native" (34 iterations) to refer to the population of Granada, he also used other familiar phrases (14 times), such as "new Christian," "new convert," and "newly converted" in contrast to "old Christians." There were uses of the word "morisco" in the nominative (eight; three specifically for women) and descriptive manner (19) in a proportion (to new Christian, etc.) similar to the whole universe of the inventoried Granadan documents: morisco (n.) occurs once per every six times that

[^192]"native" or "new Christian," "new convert," and "newly converted" occurs. ${ }^{702}$ The proportion of morisco (n.) to native was one per 4.25 occurrences. ${ }^{703}$

The use of the term "native" also served rhetorical purposes when contrasted to non-native, in this case meaning Castilian. Moreover, using the familiar Christian phrases also served the purpose of showing that the regional or native practices of this population were instances of differences in customs, rather than an indication or proof of religious adherence to Islam. This brings to the forefront that an area of failure for the newly converted was not in conversion but in acculturation—a failure to become "Castilian." Whereas other documents differentiated between new Christians from Granada and those from outside of Granada (mudéjares), the counter to native in the Memorandum was Castilian. There were also indications that old Christians were Castilian.

Two illustrations elucidate this: first, with respect to keeping doors open and weddings, Francisco Núñez Muley wrote,

With respect to what is said about the weddings taking place behind closed doors, such a thing will never be found. The doors at weddings are always left wide open, whether one is talking about the weddings of Old Christians or those of our community. The Old Christians and the natives drink and eat together at our weddings, which cannot be said of Castilian weddings. When the wedding is over and it is necessary, for various reasons, to shut the doors for the night, this is done, as is the custom and practice among the Old Christians. ${ }^{704}$

Second, regarding the public baths, Francisco Núñez Muley wrote,
The natives of this kingdom, however, do not in any way enjoy such freedoms, and due to the forms of dirtiness (and the people who work in it) described above, as well as the fact that we have, unlike other kingdoms, public waterworks to handle both clean water and sewage, we, unlike Castile, have long had public baths. At the time of the writing of the Gospels there were public baths, and yet the Castilians never desired to have any, due to the fact that going to the baths can weaken the limbs and veins of a man in times of war. In this kingdom the people are not interested in war, and so there are no significant consequences to such weakening. In fact, for

[^193]the reasons that I have described above the natives of this kingdom have greater need to bathe than others. ${ }^{705}$

Francisco Núñez Muley used these and other examples to differentiate between religious practices and other customs. Núñez Muley accomplished this, at least rhetorically, by explaining how many of these practices were not in conflict with the "Holy Catholic Faith." The issues raised in this document were familiar and were seen in the primary documents inventoried; what was different was the articulation that these practices were compatible with Christianity. ${ }^{706}$ For example, with respect to clothing:

The payments, agreed to...ensured that the natives could retain their traditional clothing, customs, and footwear as long as these did not conflict with the Holy Catholic faith. ${ }^{707}$

Núñez Muley went on to describe the reasons why the prohibitions on morisco clothing were not enforced and the hardship these prohibitions presented. Núñez Muley concluded in the following manner:

All of this and what I have described above was ordered so as to support this kingdom in its desire to maintain its traditional style of dress, which in no way goes against the Holy Catholic faith, and that its people should continue to enjoy their customs and celebrations as they have done for many years up to the present since their conversion, and not pressure or harass then in all ways and manners, such as what is being ordered now in the current decree, based as it is on the reports of prelates and other persons who have informed His Majesty that the aforementioned style of dress and clothing corresponds to that of Muslims. ${ }^{708}$

Then he added all the ways in which there were different styles worn by Christians and Muslims in different regions, which were not directly related to religion. ${ }^{709}$ Finally, with

[^194]regards to clothing, Núñez Muley concluded that wearing Castilian-style clothing had not benefited the new Christians:

To say that the natives of this kingdom should conform in their style of dress and clothing, in spite of all the aforementioned harm that such a policy would cause, is to assert also that the privileges and freedoms of the natives of this kingdom should also be altered. We have not seen, My Lord, a single New Christian woman who wore Castilian-style clothing that was relieved of the burden of the taxes that the natives of this kingdom must pay, nor have the Moriscos that married Old Christian women been relieved of this tax or been allowed to bear arms. We have not seen such a thing; rather, the natives are treated in every way as recent converts. ${ }^{710}$

By 1567, new Christians had not been able to progress to being old Christians.
Furthermore, the fallacy of the meaning of Castilian cultural adherence was revealed; a colonial consequence. Whereas, the possibility of conversion was initially thought possible, it was beginning to emerge that it was, in fact, impossible; the rules kept changing.

Of additional interest in the realm of clothing was the elaboration of who indeed was wearing traditional clothing. Francisco Núñez Muley argues that Granadan men "[had] adopted and [wore] wholly Castilian clothing:" it was the women who retained the traditional dress, thus leading to the conclusion that "the natives' style of clothing and footwear [had] nothing at all to do with either support for or opposition to Islam." ${ }^{711}$ Related to the earlier discussion on moriscas and clothing, it is important to note that three of the eight uses of morisco (n.), in the Memorandum, refer to women and that all of these occurrences have to do with the subject of clothing.

As Vincent J. Barletta notes in the introduction to his translation of the Memorandum, this document shows a different way the Granadans can be studied. Barbara Fuchs agrees especially with regards to the study of a shared material culture. The Memorandum showed that not all Christians in Granada were treated the same. Francisco Núñez Muley argued that, although they had been Christians for decades,

[^195]711 Francisco Núñez Muley, Memorandum, 72.

Granadans were still treated as "recent converts." ${ }^{712}$ On the eve of the second rebellion, and as captured by Francisco Núñez Muley, there was a sense that the status of new Christian or newly converted was no longer a transitional state, but a condition that could not be overcome: a static and different (other) category of Christians, indelibly suspect. Whereas in the previous decades Granadans after baptism were understood to be Christians, increasingly they were understood as not being Christian enough.

On several occasions, it was noted that they indeed "are Christian." Document 27 from 1525 dealt with the burial of new Christians, not to be done as in the time of the Moors. It specified three instances in which, although being new Christians, they were considered Christians, and because of this they were expected to be buried in a Christian manner: "ordering that they be buried in the churches and monasteries of this city like Christians, since they were" (27.1). ${ }^{713}$

Furthermore, initially they were thought and considered able to become "good and faithful Christians." In three documents from 1511-1513, Queen Joanna argued that by changing certain practices or customs she wished "them to be good and faithful Christians" (9.1, 10.3, and 13.2). Furthermore, Queen Joanna had been assured that the newly converted "have within them to be good Christians" (14.5). Later, in 1534-35, Archbishop Gaspar de Ávalos believed that they could be good Christians if they didn't have the hope of going to North Africa (51.2). ${ }^{714}$ Additionally, it was thought, as a strategy, that the catholic descendants of those convicted by the Inquisition could be given half of what was confiscated to encourage them to be good Christians (63.4). In this last example from c. 1539 it was still thought possible that this community could be brought fully into the Christian fold and conversion could be completed.

Adding "natives" to "newly converted" and "new Christian," as well as to "morisco" (n.) further shows that up to the second rebellion, there was variety in the referential terminology used for these communities of baptized descendants of Muslims. This diversity in usage, as well as the subtle changes or shifts in meaning, began to move

[^196]toward fixidity and fewer terms. This increased static quality is what has been termed here a process of nominalization. Nominalization is part of the processes of construction of these communities as other, as well as the processes of increased narrowing of meaning and usage of the various terms, and ultimately the increasingly negative (and nominative) use of "morisco" (n.).

In this section (3.1), the language analysis leads to two conclusions: the term "morisco" in Granada is exposed as an inaccurate metonymy since it was not the most prevalent term or phrase used; this notwithstanding, being aware of the limitations of the term "morisco" does help to bring into relief how these Christian communities, descendants of Muslims, were undergoing discursive processes of construction as other that contributed to and informed the justifications of the ultimate fate of those expelled.

### 3.2 The Other: The Trans-Atlantic Morisco

The textual analysis above exposed the preferred referential language usage and meaning for baptized descendants of Muslims as "new Christians" or the "newly converted," and revealed the initial non-stable or non-static nature of that very language. Specifically, this lack of fixidity in the language prevents "morisco" from serving as a useful metonymy for "new Christian" or "newly converted" in Granada prior to 1568-71.
Furthermore, if "morisco" is used it should be used as metonymy only when used as a negative term and to refer only to part of the community of baptized descendants of Muslims. The non-static nature of the language is understood as being a quality of hybrid language, and provides an opportunity to understand the changes along a spectrum that occurred throughout the sixteenth century and beyond, and posited to have begun in the fifteenth century. Moreover, these subtle changes in language usage and meaning reveal discursive processes of construction of these communities as other as summarized below:

```
"moro/ Muslim" prior to 1501
    "new Christian" or "newly converted" (through baptism) and
    "morisco" (n.) from 1501 to 1571, inversely progressing
"morisco" after }1571\mathrm{ and used for the expulsion and beyond.
```

With an initial understanding of the changes in language usage and meaning, in this section these shifts are analyzed to identify in more detail the processes of construction of the other. This examination is done in part by comparing the contemporaneous mass
baptisms in the peninsula, especially Granada, with those across the Atlantic, especially New Spain. This is done by contrasting the terminology used to describe Amerindians to that of the Granadans in council documents from 1565; therefore, the discursive processes of construction of the communities as other, on the eastern side of the Atlantic, comes into greater focus. This helps surmise that the Granadan primary texts, which infrequently use the term "morisco" in a nominative mode, did not initially discursively intend to describe and thus construct as other this community of Christians; this construction was a process that took most of the century and beyond to be completedakin to a process of Orientalism. Up until the expulsions (1609-14) it was still thought possible for members of these communities to be "good and faithful Christians," although the whole community was condemned as non-Christian or moriscos.

Transatlantic studies abound, especially as they relate to the translation of people, artifacts, and ideas from east to west: from Spain or Europe or Africa across the Atlantic to the so-called New World. A smaller subset of these transatlantic studies, such as those of Antonio Garrido Aranda, are works that make a connection between contemporaneous events on both sides of the Atlantic. In Moriscos e Indios: Precedentes Hispánicos de la Evangelización en México and Organización de la Iglesia en el Reino de Granada y su proyección en Indias, following the most common east to west trajectory Garrido Aranda argues that issues relating to the establishment of the Church in Granada can be seen as precedents in the emerging church across the Atlantic. Garrido Aranda acknowledges that this was not a perfect parallel, since the Church across the Atlantic functioned in many ways like the primitive church, but that nonetheless the evangelization of these two communities and the establishment of the church on both sides of the Atlantic had common elements worthy of study. ${ }^{715}$

A very small subset in trans-Atlantic studies focuses on events in the so-called New World and how these help to understand what is happening in Spain or a particular region in Spain. ${ }^{716}$ Rather than an east to west focus, this project moves from west to east. The usefulness of the trans-Atlantic lens here is that it can shed light on the level of difference that existed in one context, as opposed to the level of difference that existed elsewhere.

[^197]The primary documents seem to bring into relief that whereas Amerindians were indeed more other to Spaniards, Granadans were less other when compared to other Spaniards, such as Castilians. The purported otherness of the Granadans, earlier religious, mostly regional, is in great part a reified historiographical construction.

Baptism was seen in the peninsula as a tool and vehicle for acculturation. To put this differently, Granadan new Christians, once baptized, were thought to be able to become and behave like other Spaniards (hegemonically Castilian) and eventually be indistinguishable, religiously and culturally, from their co-religionists old Christians. The transitional and temporal language of "new" and "newly" reflects this point of view. On the other hand, Amerindians, once baptized, remained "indios," and their baptism would not and was not expected to bring them closer to Spanishness, even as they were also expected to abandon religious or socio-cultural practices that were antithetical to Christianity. On both sides of the Atlantic, communities were expected to abandon their previous religious practices, but this forsaking was not expected to have similar results with respect to acculturation. This is the basis for the hypothesis that the difference perpetuated and purported in the peninsula was chiefly a constructed one.

To demonstrate the above observation and hypothesis, it is immediately noted that in the documents under study from New Spain, from the Apostolic Meetings and Provincial Councils, the phrase "newly converted" was rarely used and there were no occurrences of the phrase "new Christians." For example, in a 53-page appendix to the First and Second Mexican Provincial Councils with two reprinted documents from 1537 and 1539, there were only two occurrences of the phrase "newly converted"717 and dozens of references either to indios or naturales (at least 24 and 45, respectively). ${ }^{718}$ With respect to their condition before baptism, they were also referred to as gentiles (five times). ${ }^{719}$ In the Council documents themselves, the preferred term was "indios," although the term "naturales" (natives) was also used. There was only one mention of "newly converted" in Chapter 23 of the Second Provincial Council regarding what books indios could have:

[^198]"[that] the ignorant people especially the newly converted Indians [do not have these books]."720

In the case of New Spain, unless referring to a Christian or non-Christian practice, it cannot be ascertained fully whether each mention of indio or natural referred to a baptized Amerindian, since unlike for Granadans, Amerindians could not be given the option of baptism or exile. In the context of these ecclesial documents, the preponderant meaning was that they were referring to the native Christian population.

The Provincial Councils of 1555 and 1565 from México were contemporaneous with the 1554 Guadix y Baza Synod and the 1565 Provincial Council of Granada (Document 74). ${ }^{721}$ What follows is a brief comparison between the two 1565 documents in terms of language used on both sides of the Atlantic and what this may reveal for the peninsula (west to east). Document 74 did not include any mention of moriscos: it referred to the newly converted twice, naturales five times, and new Christians 48 times; there were 24 mentions of old Christians. ${ }^{722}$ In the analogous document, the 1565 Mexican canons, the preferred terms used were "indios" (20 times) or "naturales" (eight times), and "newly converted" only once. ${ }^{723}$ This last usage was a qualification of indios, as seen above. ${ }^{724}$ Furthermore, there were seven instances in which indios and españoles were mentioned together emphasizing that the canon applied to all Christians. ${ }^{725}$ The phrase "old Christian" was not used, which was understandable since it did not have the counterpart new or newly: this is similar to Francisco Núñez Muley's use of native, which did not require the counterpart old Christian. All the Mexican canons were directed at improving the lives of the faithful Christians. ${ }^{726}$ The phrase "fieles cristianos" occurred six times. ${ }^{727}$

[^199]Indios as a community were twice referred to as "gente" (people): "gente ignorante" (ignorant people) and "gente nueva en la Fe" (people new in the faith). ${ }^{728}$

The subjects related to these tallied terms from the Second Mexican Provincial Council can be grouped in the following way. First, indios or naturales, like Spaniards, should have access to the sacraments and did not have to pay for them. ${ }^{729}$ Free sacraments did not preclude "the offering of alms, which the Faithful Christians, be they indios, like Spaniards, of their mere, own, and spontaneous will would like to give." ${ }^{730}$ Second, there were some practices that required reform, such as: indios doing processions without proper supervision, ${ }^{731}$ indios believing that they owned the sacred items they gave to the churches, ${ }^{732}$ priests not providing masses and instruction to naturales, or indios not hearing mass, ${ }^{733}$ indios or naturales doing the Ave María incorrectly, ${ }^{734}$ and, dietary restrictions or exemptions for indios and Spaniards. ${ }^{735}$ Finally, these canons and other letters had to be communicated to ministers and they, in turn, had the responsibility to communicate these things to the indios, including the jubilee, graces, and indulgences that they could also gain. ${ }^{736}$

Like the second Mexican Council, the Granadan council was concerned with comparable reforms and themes. This was understandable given that both councils had as a purpose to receive the recently concluded Council of Trent. The Mexican canons applied to both indios or naturales and españoles, in Granada these equally applied to new and old Christians. Although the Granadan canons were quite specific that they be applied to both the parishes of the old and new Christians (74.3-4, 74.6), the overt aim of the Granadan canons was to help the newly converted of the Moors to be well instructed

[^200]in the faith (74.1). The issue of instruction recurred in the peninsula, even up to the time of the expulsions.

New Christians had access to the sacraments (74.9, 74.30, 74.41, 74.43, 74.48, 74.54), were supposed to attend mass or listen to the offices (74.19, 74.12), and to reform their practices, especially those thought to be related to their prior religious affiliation. Beyond instruction, both old and new Christians had the same responsibilities as other Christians, whether indios or españoles. There was much in common in the sets of canons from both sides of the Atlantic, which help in recognizing the differences between them, and these differences become relevant in ascertaining the conclusions in this section. The first difference between the two sets of canons was in the referential language used for the various communities; on one side, indios and españoles, on the other, new Christians and old Christians.

This variance reflects a contextual difference, but, as it is purported here, it also reflects a difference in degree of dissimilarity between the counterpart communities. Put differently, the language in New Spain at this point is fixed, because initially there was a fixed difference between españoles and indios; the language of new Christian presumes a possibility of change; therefore, the distance between new and old Christian could be overcome or bridged, though initially was it was thought to be surmountable since differences, including the religious, were held to be conquerable.

Another difference was in whether it was thought to be advantageous to have interaction between the two communities. In New Spain, there was not an expectation of religion leading to adherence to Spanish cultural norms, but across the Atlantic, baptism was expected to lead to acculturation; this acculturation could be achieved through the interaction of new and old Christians: through intermarriage, as godparents, etc. ${ }^{737}$ The religious practices of Amerindians were supervised by Spaniards, but mixing was not encouraged. Whereas the regular and secular clergy were encouraged to know the native languages of the indios to avoid or detect errors in the faith, across the Atlantic Arabic was removed (forbidden) in order to move toward acculturation.

[^201]In Granada, Queen Joanna in 1511 and 1513, well before some considered Muslimness something that could not be overcome (hence religion being indelible or in the blood), the newly converted were required or encouraged to mix with old Christians, to bring the practices of the newly converted closer to that of old Christians (48.2). This mixing was seen in three different contexts: two settings were meant to control the use of rites and ceremonies associated with Islam, and the last to encourage intermarriage between new and old Christians. For example, in birth and baptism, and in the butchering of meat there was a requirement for the newly converted to be in the presence of old Christians. These were never requirements in New Spain. A nuanced aspect of this, with godparents (9.1, 89.3, 13.1-2), was that it would require a relationship between new and old Christians that would move people across boundaries. Charles encouraged intermarriage: the most important benefit of intermarriage appeared to be the theoretical possibility of a change in status from newly converted or new Christian to old Christian. The only other way to argue for the status of old Christian was to prove that baptism occurred before the general imposition of the rite. ${ }^{738}$ In the fifteenth century, continued ties with Jews were frowned upon for those baptized former Jews or their baptized descendants (which led to the expulsion of Jews in 1492), and this was also the case with the baptized Amerindians and the non-baptized Amerindians.

Intermarriage was thought to be a beneficial way to bring the newly converted closer to the faith and for acculturation. The following excerpt shows this encouragement and related benefits:
in order to encourage the newly converted and attract them to our holy faith it would be good that the new Christian [m.] who married an old Christian [f.] was free from farda or could carry arms, and that the old Christian that married a new Christian would also be free of the farda of the property related to his wife. ${ }^{739}$

Document 43 referred to three newly converted men who had various marriage connections to old Christians: the first was a son of a man who had been baptized prior to the imposition of baptism on the Granadan population; the second was the son of an old Christian (f.) and it is implied a new Christian (m.), and was married to an old Christian who was the daughter of an old Christian (m.); and, finally the third was married to an old

[^202]Christian (43.1-3). Because of these connections by marriage or parentage to old Christians it was expected that they "have and ought to enjoy all the honors, graces, preeminences, prerogatives and immunities that are seen and enjoyed by old Christians." ${ }^{740}$ They were to enjoy the lands promised to them (43.5), and did not have to pay farda nor other fees of the newly converted Christians (43.8). Across the Atlantic, intermarriage was illegal even among co-religionists (Amerindians and Spaniards); indios through baptism were not expected to come closer to españoles.

The contemporary baptism of great numbers of adult indios and Granadans raised similar issues for the Church on both sides of the Atlantic issues of indoctrination and catechization. Similar questions or concerns arose in both contexts, such as whether the newly converted could be allowed to receive communion and extreme unction, and in both contexts, the answer was affirmative, given that they were already baptized. ${ }^{741}$ There was agreement that because of baptism, members of both communities had the rights and responsibilities of any other Christian. In Granada, clergy were instructed to make sure that new and old parishioners were going to mass, confessing once a year, and receiving the holy sacrament; they were also instructed to penalize old and new in the same ways. ${ }^{742}$ With respect to the sacraments, Amerindians and Granadans once baptized were expected to adhere to the general practice of other Christians.

Yet, there were two areas outside of the sacraments in which Granadans and Amerindians were treated differently—other than intermarriage and the interaction discussed above-and these had to do with tithes and church attendance. This also indicates different levels of dissimilarity on both sides of the Atlantic. In the Second

[^203]Mexican Provincial Council, there was a clarification regarding what tithes were required of Amerindians. Chapter 90 from the First Mexican Provincial Council stated that it was required that every faithful Christian pay the tithes, as is required by God and the Holy Mother Church, we [now] declare, that it was not our intention to force the Indians, but instead the Spaniards, since such general tithes have never been collected, nor are they now collected, nor will they be ordered to be collected from the said Indians, with the exception of the tithes of the three things, that are ordered by Royal Decree... ${ }^{743}$

By contrast the Granadans as soon as they were baptized no longer (theoretically) had to pay the Moorish fees (derechos moriscos), but had to pay the tithes and first fruits (diezmos y primicias) as other Christians (see 3.5 and 4.3). Not only were the Granadans required to pay all the tithes, but there were additional fees, such as the farda, and other payments that the Granadan population agreed upon to enjoy a certain level of autonomy. Whereas Amerindians were exploited for their labor, Granadans were fiscally exploitedanother contextual difference. ${ }^{744}$

The newly converted in Granada were expected to have the capacity to be just like any other Christian. This expectation did not exist for Amerindians. Put differently, Granadans were understood to have the capacity not only to become Christians, but to be Christians like other Christians, especially like Castilian Christians. This supports the view that initially the status of new Christian or newly converted was transitional and could be overcome. As the decades passed and baptized descendants of Muslims were perceived as not progressing in the direction desired by the Crown and the Church, the potential for complete conversion was diminished and they were then constructed solely as a community of the other that could not progress to be like the self. They were considered to be a suspect community, an alien community.

Another difference, on both sides of the Atlantic, had to do with requirements for church attendance and this similarly reveals that the distance between different groups

[^204]was less in the peninsula than in New Spain. In the canons of the First Mexican Provincial Council, Chapter 18 has to do with the difference in feast days required of Spaniards and the feast days required of indios: no such distinction was made in Granada treating new and old Christians alike with respect to feast days. Spaniards in New Spain were required to keep at least 96 days of feasts-44 days, plus local patronal feast days since it was "in the interest of good Christians." ${ }^{745}$ Differently, across the Atlantic, since
our Most Holy Pope Paul III, considering the destitution, and poverty of the native Indians of this land, exempted them from the obligation to keep certain feasts and noted which ones were compelled. ${ }^{746}$

They were required to keep 65 days of feasts: every Sunday, and only 13 other days; therefore, 31 other days indios could be exploited for their labor.

Although a list of days for fasting was not included for Spaniards, the required nine days for the indios were noted, and these imply fewer days required than those for españoles:

The other days that the church requires fasting, are left to the discretion of the indios, so that according to their poverty, and trade, and work, each one do, without hesitation of sin, what seems best,
and in the case of days that were required of the españoles but not of the indios it was requested that Spaniards not hire indios to work in their lands on those days. ${ }^{747}$

The preceding presentation of some salient issues regarding the baptism of Amerindians used as a control group, compared language, expectations of acculturation, group interaction and intermarriage, the requirement of church attendance and attendance to the sacraments, fasting, and tithing. This presentation served the purpose of highlighting that the variety of and non-static nature of the language identified in Section 3.1 as compared with the language across the Atlantic demonstrates that the levels of difference purported to exist in the peninsula between Granadans (and other baptized descendants of Muslims) to other Spaniards was less than has been constructed and as historiographically believed to be real. When combined with the quantitative and empirical analysis in Section 3.1, this reveals that the baptism of the Spanish Muslims and their

[^205]descendants was initially part of what was thought to aid in the desired process of acculturation of this community. This was not the case for Amerindians, whose baptism was not expected to bring them closer to Spanish.

## Sistema de Castas

Delving more deeply into the changes in language-such as nominalization and fixidity, there is a further way in which language usage in New Spain helps elucidate usage in the peninsula: the analysis of the seventeenth- and eighteenth-century Sistema de Castas (caste system). As seen above, using the context of New Spain and Amerindians helps to show that differences in the peninsula were more typically constructed than actual differences as found across the Atlantic. This comparison is done keeping in mind that the Sistema de Castas was also a construction, and that it belonged to the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, after more than a century of intermixing of Spanish, Amerindian, and African persons (miscegenation or exogamy or mestizaje or mulatez). As presented in the Introduction, using the Sistema de Castas is reasonable given the theory proposed that the processes of othering, nominalization, racialization, etc. took centuries to complete, and culminated outside of the peninsula.

The Sistema de Castas was an elaborate way of designating the racial mixture of people in the so-called New World. Whereas in the peninsula the initial concern was with taint based on religious ancestry (limpieza de sangre) and the more (or any) Jewish or Muslim ancestry a person had, the more removed they were from Castilian and old Christian along the spectrum of difference; across the Atlantic a person was farthest from Spanish ("white") the more African blood that person had. ${ }^{748}$ The categories of "African" ("black") and "Muslim" (moro) were increasingly conflated and tied to each other as the trans-Atlantic sub-Saharan African slave trade increased. ${ }^{749}$

It has been proposed and shown that at the beginning of the sixteenth century the movement along a spectrum from Muslim to Christian was thought possible in the peninsula and that this movement could also correspond to a shift toward Spanishness (Castilian), in other words, acculturation. By the beginning of the seventeenth century this

[^206]movement was mostly thought to be impossible. In New Spain the fluidity along the casta spectrum after each generation could theoretically move one closer or farther away from Spanishness ("whiteness"). For example, a person with $1 / 8$ Amerindian blood could still be Spanish; this was not the case for persons with any African blood. R. Douglas Cope describes de Sistema de Castas in the following way:

The standard seventeenth-century format (there were, of course, regional variations) contained five to seven groups, ranked as follows: Spaniard, castizo, morisco, mestizo, mulatto, Indian, and black. (Castizos were the product of Spanish-mestizo unions, morisco the children of mulatto and Spanish parents.) ${ }^{750}$

In this system español was equated with "whiteness" and was completely opposite to African ("black"). The offspring of a castizo ( $3 / 4$ Spanish and $1 / 4$ Amerindian) that married a Spaniard would be considered español. To this must be added the term criollo (a nonpeninsular Spaniard), referring to the offspring born in a Spanish colony of parents who both were Spanish or criollo.

Of particular interest here is the fact that there was a casta category termed "morisco." A morisco/a was the offspring of the union of an español/a and a mulato/a. ${ }^{751}$ A mulato/a was the result of the union of an español/a and an African, thus making the mulato/a $1 / 2$ African ("black") or $1 / 2$ Spaniard ("white"), and thus morisco/a $3 / 4$ Spaniard ( $3 / 4$ "white"). ${ }^{752}$ Using this system, then, to approximate difference or "distance" between Spaniard (normatively Castilian) and Spaniard (so-called morisco/a), the difference could at most be quantified, or posited, as $25 \%$; this is the position taken for this project.

Moreover, if morisco/a in New Spain or Perú was understood as biologically hybrid (mixed, mestizo/a), and the Sistema de Castas as a spectrum, this continuum can be analogously compared to the possibility of change from being a Muslim Spaniard to being

[^207]a new Christian to being a "good and faithful" Christian Spaniard, with morisco/a having the hybrid quality described before, which was, at one point, shared with new Christian.
\[

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { Spanish } \leftrightarrows \text { castizo } \leftrightarrows \text { morisco } \leftrightarrows \text { mestizo } \leftrightarrows \text { mulato } \leftrightarrows \text { Indian } \leftrightarrows \text { African } \\
\text { Spanish } \leftrightarrows \text { castizo } \leftrightarrows \text { mestizo } \leftrightarrows \text { Indian } \\
\text { Spanish } \leftrightarrows \text { morisco } \leftrightarrows \text { mulato } \leftrightarrows \text { African } \\
\text { Christian } \leftrightarrows \text { new Christian } \leftrightarrows \text { morisco } \leftrightarrows \text { Muslim(moro) } \\
\text { Christian } \leftrightarrows \text { new Christian } \leftrightarrows \text { converso } \leftrightarrows \text { Jew }
\end{gathered}
$$
\]

These spectrums can be seen as comparable also because "blackness" and "Muslimness" contemporaneously became conflated categories and with increasingly similar connotations: both were associated with Africa. Furthermore, Africans ("blacks") as well as Christians of Muslim or Jewish descent were both associated with disloyalty or "political and religious infidelity." ${ }^{753}$

In her study of a "black conspiracy" in central México in 1612, María Elena Martínez proposes that the accusation of conspiracy was a part of a "process of 'blackening'."754 Citing James Sweet, Martínez argues for the historical
linking of blackness to both servitude and Islam (because of the presence of black slaves in Muslim parts of the peninsula) and in general to seeing black skin color in negative terms. ${ }^{755}$

Furthermore, Martínez in Genealogical Fictions sees the Sistema de Castas in the Americas as the culmination of the limpieza de sangre system in the peninsula; a theory supported by the meta-process proposed here and shown to also function in the sixteenth century:

The full implications of Iberian notions of purity of blood were in a sense only realized in the colonial context, for it was there that systems of classification based on degrees of African, native, and European blood were produced to perpetuate the political and economic subordination of black, indigenous people and the population of mixed ancestry. ${ }^{756}$

[^208]Although María Elena Martínez sees the connection between the two systems on both sides of the Atlantic, the initial driving focus of difference was unalike. In the socalled New World, the focus was on racial or ethnic lineage, and in the peninsula on religious lineage. Later, the categories of religion and race or ethnicity in the peninsula became conflated. Notwithstanding this breakdown in a complete parallel between the use of the term "morisco" in the peninsula and across the Atlantic, as done here, the uses in New Spain elucidate the construction of difference on both sides of the Atlantic, as well as the posited movement and change from one understanding or usage to another.

While most references to morisco/a in México and Perú have been studied as part of the Sistema de Castas and thus were supposedly constructed around the epidermis, James Lockhart argues and assumes that the mention of moriscas in Perú was of moriscas from the peninsula who were brought to Perú as slaves. James Lockhart describes moriscas in Perú as "light skinned" and as
slave women of Muslim descent, [who] were for the most part Caucasian (presumably "white"), Spanish-born, and converted to Christianity, and spoke Spanish as a native language. ${ }^{757}$

Although here he describes them racially as "Caucasian," elsewhere Lockhart states that the race of the moriscas was uncertain, and that most moriscas/os "were physically indistinguishable from other Spaniards." ${ }^{758}$ Lockhart then uses this last assertion to propose that after these women were freed, "most assumed the role of Spanish women, among whom they disappeared."759 All three of these descriptions are nuanced in their difference as well. There is a sense in Lockhart's analysis that difference was not external or epidermic. This statement would confirm the sense that part of the anxiety that existed in the peninsula was that the baptized descendants of Muslims could pass as Spanish; highlighting the fact that difference was primarily constructed.

María Elena Martínez describes the term "morisco" as different from "castizo" by stating that the former "was at first more ambiguous for it was associated with blacks,

[^209]Islam, or both." ${ }^{760}$ Exacerbated by the trans-Atlantic sub-Saharan African Slave Trade, Africans were associated with infidelity and the curse of "Ham."761 The source of their infidelity was also increasingly associated with Islam. This contributed then to another component of the processes of racialization of morisco in Spain, which was completed across the Atlantic. Part of the conflation was reverting to the original association and definition of the term "Moor" in Roman times (pre-Islamic) as related to Mauritania. Although in Spain for centuries Moor was related to Muslim, it began again to be related to Africa (perhaps Morocco), and ultimately with black slavery. ${ }^{762}$ Whereas in Spain there was a process by which morisco was constructed into a religiously and racially or ethnically other, across the Atlantic morisco started as a de facto category of other, just as indio was initially more completely other.

Using the lens of the Sistema de Castas and the Americas, María Elena Martínez writes about the negative fixing of the "morisco" category,

Notwithstanding their approximation to 'whiteness,' moriscos were generally not allowed to claim a status that corresponded to their ancestry. The moriscos' real or imagined connection to slaves not only associated them with infidelity and sin, but also limited their ability to make genealogical claims, particularly about the longevity of their ties to Christianity. According to Castilian legal formulas, descendants of slaves could not establish the history and depth of their loyalty to the faith because slavery implied the severing of kinship ties (in ascending and descending generations) and because they could not prove that their ancestors had converted to Christianity voluntarily. In other words, the discourse of purity of blood and its emphasis on the construction of a certain familial and religious past-or the invention of a particular genealogical memory-made it virtually impossible for persons of African parentage to be considered 'aged old Christians. ${ }^{763}$

Through the analysis of the terminology used to describe the community of baptized descendants of Muslims, it has been determined that transient non-static terms became static and eventually became reified as accurately "describing" the persons and

[^210]communities in question. In the peninsula, these have been termed processes of religiously and eventually racially and ethnically othering communities of Christians of Muslim descent, processes that contributed to the discursive justifications of expulsions of members of these communities. The counterpart and completing processes of othering across the Atlantic was the Sistema de Castas. To further understand this othering system, it is important to note that the Sistema was supposedly primarily a "visual" or epidermic classification; thus, always fraught with the dangers of ambiguity and passing.

The complete Sistema de Castas was used in a series of paintings by various named and unknown artists in the late-seventeenth and eighteenth century. ${ }^{764}$ Many of these artists and paintings are studied by Ilona Katzew in her book Casta Painting: Image of Race in Eighteenth-Century México. ${ }^{765}$ The institutional use (such as in church registers) of the Sistema de Castas was more limited than the proliferation of categories found in the paintings. In addition to the seven most common castas (español, castizo, morisco, mestizo, mulato, indio, negro) ${ }^{766}$ there were a great number of additional terms used to describe various "constructed" racial mixtures between español (European or "white"), African, and Amerindian backgrounds.

An analysis of more than 200 illustrations of Casta Paintings available in Ilona Katzew's book reveal that there were at least 26 categories used in the paintings, with 12 of these categories having multiple definitions (by different artists), or different kinds of racial mixtures. The 26 categories with the 12 that have variations produced more than 80 categories or "terms" to describe the various combinations. Including the permutations, this would produce more than 800 different possibilities of mixture as depicted in the paintings. ${ }^{767}$

[^211]Some of the categories cannot be analyzed holding other variables fixed, given that the definitions do not include the same types of "mixture." For example, two definitions of chino (español + African) were ( $7 / 8$ ) $87.5 \%$ or $3 / 4$ español, and ( ${ }^{1} / 8$ ) $12.5 \%$ or $1 / 4$ African, yet, another chino could have had español, Amerindian, and African blood, with the latter two having greater percentages in the mix. Moreover, chino could also have been $1 / 4$ Amerindian and $3 / 4$ African. In a possible graphic including three variables from español ("white") to non-"white" (African and/or Amerindian), chino would fall in various locations. ${ }^{768}$

The definitions of the terms for the seven common castas were more static and did not vary in the various sets of paintings. This was also predominantly true for categories that included one parent who was of Spanish casta: mestizo, castizo, mulato, morisco, and albino. There were fewer categories to account for Amerindian and español mixtures that did not include any African blood (such as castizo and mestizo, and some combinations deriving chamizo and coyote) than mixtures that included any African blood (more than 20 categories). Whereas mixtures of only español and Amerindian blood could potentially and theoretically reach Spanish (or attain Spanishness), like español plus castizo producing español, rather than allowing for any African blood to reach español, there was a proliferation of categories along the Spanish-African spectrum even to the $1 / 32$ part African with ${ }^{31} / 32$ part Spanish which still remained non-Spanish: tente en el aire. ${ }^{769}$ Yet this, like other categories (see chino before), was not fixed in its definition. Tente en el aire also had definitions which did not include any Spanish blood at all. ${ }^{770}$

Using the trans-Atlantic approach supports the posited hypothesis that difference between morisco and español, which was initially surmountable and at most $25 \%$, changed as the century progressed to an indelible difference. This difference (25\%)

[^212]became indelible as "morisco" became increasingly racialized, and tainted and conflated with Africa; yet, this difference did not increase. This is parallel to having the "possibility of change" (conversion) become "impossible" as time progressed through the discursive proliferation of new categories. Said differently, new categories such as "morisco" were inserted to prevent "new Christian" from becoming "old Christian," like closing off "español" to the "morisco" or anyone with any African blood (even to the ${ }^{1 / 32}$ "African" and $32 / 32$ "español").

As mentioned, the category "morisco" was $3 / 4$ Spanish and $1 / 4$ African. "Morisco" was at the same distance from "español" as "castizo" which theoretically, in one generation, would become "español." Notwithstanding this "short" distance, there was a further proliferation of categories which included the addition of four other categories in between "morisco" and "español": "tente en el aire" ( ${ }^{31 / 32}$ español), "torna atrás" ( ${ }^{15} / 16$ español), "albino" ( $7 / 8$ español), and "chino" ( $7 / 8$ español). In this example, the terms "albino" and "chino" have the same racial mixture ( $7 / 8$ Spanish and $1 / 8$ African), yet, although $7 / 8$ Spanish and $1 / 8$ Amerindian (castizo plus español) equals "Spanish," "albino" and "chino" do not equal "español" and still have at least some other categories in between them and "Spanish."

It becomes clear that the implied possibility of movement along a spectrum, whether religiously in the peninsula or racially across the Atlantic, was a possibility at the beginning of the processes of evangelization and conquest, yet progressed toward the impossibility of attaining either "old Christian" status, or "español" casta status. Like the peninsular use of "morisco" which could not revert to "moro" nor progress toward "Spanish" nor "old Christian," albeit with the initial transitional and non-static categories of "new Christian" and "newly converted," any category with any "African" mixture in the Sistema de Castas would not be able to progress toward "Spanish," a language requirement used discursively to justify the expulsions.

As was the case in the peninsula, there were "legal" ways to change your casta status, by obtaining certificates or probanzas. This confirms that there were elements of such a system which included constructions of difference and othering, as seen in the case of castizo plus Spaniard, which could theoretically produce a Spaniard. Yet there were still other hurdles to overcome. María Elena Martínez quotes Cristóbal Ruiz de Quiroz from 1599 regarding a legal process of probanza,
that he descended from a clean caste and generation, without the race or mixture of Moors, mulattoes, black, Jews and the newly converted to the Holy Catholic faith or of persons punished by the Holy Office. ${ }^{771}$

This is a clear example of the ways in which racial or ethnic and religious categories were increasingly conflated. And this conflation was part of the discursive processes identified in this project, which have been taken for granted by some historians.

María Elena Martínez argues that the category of "castizo"
signaled the construction of a colonial ideology that recognized the purity, or potential purity, of native lineages (especially if they were noble) and hence allowed their complete assimilation into Spanish old Christian ones. ${ }^{772}$

This was not true for lineages with any African blood; ${ }^{773}$ as time passed and greater distance existed from the noble past of Amerindians, the ability of those with some Amerindian blood to reach the Spanish casta also diminished.

Although the limitations in progressing from morisco to Spanish were evident in the proliferation of the "in-between" categories mentioned before, there still existed the possibility and perhaps reality as noted by James Lockhart, that in the case of "morisca women" it was an easy step to pass as Spanish and therefore drop off the historical record. ${ }^{774}$ This ability to pass is one that repeatedly appears in the documents. The main threat of the morisco, whether in the peninsula or across the Atlantic, continued to be their proximity to "Spanish"-ness and thus passing. Antonio Garrido Aranda seems to make a similar argument, in passing, when he notes the drop in documentary mentions of moriscos across the Atlantic even as the "morisco problem" intensified in the peninsula. ${ }^{775}$ For example, Antonio Garrido Aranda notes the existence of "white" slaves in the Spanish colonies, surmised to be "Muslims" from the peninsula, or Berbers, or persons from the

[^213]Canary Islands, and notes the dramatic drop in "white" slaves from 1532 to $1540 .{ }^{776}$ This may have been another instance of no longer being able to distinguish between a "white" slave and a Spaniard across the Atlantic, thus making this population increasingly invisible or not narrated in the historical record; they could fully pass as James Lockhart noted.

Antonio Garrido Aranda uses the lack of documentary evidence to conclude that there were not many baptized descendants of Muslims across the Atlantic. ${ }^{777}$ Yet, based on knowledge of the Sistema de Castas and the term "morisco" in that system, a dearth of a textual record of baptized descendants of Muslims may mean that the differences between these communities and that of Castilians were not easily ascertained, especially given the presence of Amerindians and Africans, which were reasonably more distinctively other. This suggests that baptized descendants of Muslims may have ceased to be part of the historical record because they could pass as Spanish ("white") or chose not to be narrated. Antonio Garrido Aranda may be agreeing in the following statement:

If that morisco minority in America intended to hide, the best was to not leave a trace and dilute themselves among the other ethnic groups, even at the cost of their identity. In spite of this supposed intention, we have been able to detect the presence of moriscos in that New World that, precisely because of its condition of new, did not wish to have the same problems that existed in Europe. ${ }^{778}$

[^214]What indeed may have been happening was not an intentionality in hiding, but that with a different population mix, than that of the peninsula, the constructed or purported differences in the peninsula between old Christians and other Christians, descendants of Muslims, were not easily detectable in the new context, to be othered, thus not raising a flag or anxiety. This again supports the position that difference in the peninsula was not as great as has been discursively constructed.

This presentation and analysis of the category of "morisco" as defined in New Spain and Perú in the late-seventeenth and eighteenth century shows a posited final step in the processes of racialization of the category of "morisco," now fixed, from when it was related to "moro" (Muslim) then overrode "new Christian" and "newly converted," thus moving from temporal categories to the proliferation of categories. Like the initial possible movement from "new" to "old," there was a possibility to move along the casta system, especially along the Spanish-Amerindian spectrum.

## How long to become Spanish or old Christian?

Initially the contrast or binary of new and old Christian implied temporality and the possibility of movement from new to old. Originally, this was believed to occur within three or four generations. ${ }^{779}$ At first, it was true religiously for descendants of former Jews or Muslims, and racially or ethnically for Amerindians who mixed with Spaniards. While it started in the fifteenth century, by the middle of the sixteenth century this possibility was replaced by a purity of religious lineage (or racial or ethnic lineage) that existed for "time immemorial," ${ }^{780}$ especially to account for any mixture that included "African" blood, or Jewish or Muslim blood.

As posited here as a meta process, these processes began with the baptized descendants of Jews, continued with the baptized descendants of Muslims, and was
identidad. A pesar de esta supuesta intención, hemos podido detectar la presencia de moriscos en aquel Nuevo Mundo que, precisamente por nuevo, no deseaba tener los problemas que acechaban en Europa."
${ }^{779}$ María Elena Martínez, "Language, Genealogy, and Classification," 27, 39, 42; Genealogical Fictions, 198, 203. She adds that an old Christian is a descendant of gentiles without any knowledge of the past of when they became Christian. See also Ilona Katzew, "White or Black?: Albinism and Spotted Blacks in the eighteenth-century Atlantic World," in Envisioning Others: Race, Color, and the Visual Iberia and Latin America, ed. Pamela A. Patton (Leiden: Brill, 2016), 151: "The process of mestizaje, or racial mixing, was viewed as one way to restore 'whiteness,' even if it was also widely decided and considered to corrupt the races."
${ }^{780}$ María Elena Martínez, "Language, Genealogy, and Classification," 27.
solidified with the intensification of the trans-Atlantic sub-Saharan African slave trade and the conflation of infidelity with both religious and racial taint. The transient categories of "new Christian" and even the later problematic terms "morisco" and "converso," were further constructed and ultimately reified to mean non-Christian and non-Spanish: suspect and alien. ${ }^{781}$ The casta categories, especially those with any African blood, similarly functioned to limit access to Spanish.

Just as Francisco Núñez Muley pleaded to have Granadans considered old Christian, baptized Amerindians pleaded no longer to be considered neophytes in the faith and
argued that because most Indians descended from people who had converted in the sixteenth century, they were no longer 'neophytes' as many people still claimed, but in fact already 'ancient Christians.' They were, in other words, both 'limpios de sangre' and 'cristianos viejos.' ${ }^{\text {' }} 8$

The limitations in becoming Spanish and/or old Christian were tied to different understandings racially, ethnically, and religiously of Amerindians and Granadans from one another, and as such to the understanding of the temporal nature of being a neophyte in the faith. Amerindians were believed to have been untouched historically and genealogically by Jewish or Muslim blood. ${ }^{783}$ Africans, whether Muslim or not, were considered to be descendants of Ham (son of Noah) and therefore heirs of Ham's curse. ${ }^{784}$

The idea that it took three or four generations for new Christians to become old Christians and for the descendants of a Spanish-Indian union to claim

[^215]${ }^{784}$ María Elena Martínez, "Language, Genealogy, and Classification," 31. See footnotes 755, 761.
limpieza, had by the eighteenth century given way to similar formulas for 'whitening. ${ }^{785}$

The processes had similar functions on both sides of the Atlantic: exclusion through the narrowing of the category of "Spanish" ("white"). Whereas in the peninsula people of Jewish or Muslim descent could not ultimately overcome their religious ancestry given the ideology of limpieza de sangre, across the Atlantic, given the ideology of the Sistema de Castas purity of blood was somatized to the skin, to the external—although for some whose skin color was indistinguishable from other Spaniards the taint, especially of African blood, would remain. Therefore, in New Spain when skin color was no longer a reliable marker, the colonial body could still be marginalized by the internal blood taint, thus functioning in the more familiar peninsular manner. The proliferation of categories of nonwhite (non-Spanish) functioned in the same way as the construction of categories which would become associated with non-Christian. In the case of the casta category of "morisco" it would gain the conflation of negative attitudes toward Africans and Muslims as emblematic of infidelity. ${ }^{786}$ This was also related to reactions to the discourses of the socalled Black Legend which required Spaniards to "whiten" themselves.

In using a trans-Atlantic lens and Amerindians as a control group, the notion that difference in the peninsula was less is further confirmed. Yet on both sides of the Atlantic, there may have been an actual discrepancy between discursive difference (a construction) and factual religious or epidermic difference (which may or may not be visible-somatic, and was also a construct). This is the difference between a person or group being defined or self-identifying/defining; a difference in the location of agency-agency, which the colonial subjects did not have across the Atlantic or in the peninsula, and who was doing the narrating.

Complicating the processes and constructions on both sides of the Atlantic was that attaining Spanish- or old-Christian status was something that could be achieved through the legal system, since the Sistema de Castas was a hierarchical system privileging Spanish blood and "whiteness." Just as in the peninsula a person could have a legal judgment which showed that they were old Christian, across the Atlantic, a person could

[^216]have a probanza (judgment) which showed them free of the racial or ethnic, religious, and indecency stains. ${ }^{787}$

Thus, by looking at both sides of the Atlantic, and analyzing the usage and meaning of the term "morisco" in a different context (the Sistema de Castas), the following assertions are reiterated: First, difference in the peninsula was less than across the Atlantic, thus difference (otherness) in the peninsula was more greatly discursively constructed. Given the greater and initially more fixed difference between Amerindians and Spanish, numerous examples were provided which show that the difference between new and old Christians was initially thought to be surmountable, yet the category of "morisco" eventually was not, so that these persons could only be suspect and alien: nonChristian and non-Spanish. Particularly, differences were evident in issues surrounding tithes, church attendance, and fasting, as well as the different expectations regarding acculturation.

Second, the more static quality of the term "morisco" in México and Perú confirms that the meaning and usage of "morisco" in the peninsula was not always fixed or racialized; there was a process of fixidity (of making religion indelible) that had several steps and had not been completed in the sixteenth century, or by the time of the expulsions. These processes were supported by: the increased conflation of Islam and Africa as part of the slave trade, and thus "morisco" with "blackness"; the development of Spanish imperial/state identity; and Muslim and Jewish heritage as the taint in the peninsula (reactions to the discourses of the "Black Legend").

Third, the indelibility of the constructed otherness required the proliferation of categories, as obstacles, to prevent completion of the movement toward Christian or Spanish. Finally, the constructed nature of otherness was also seen in the instances in which a status change could be attained legally, thus uncovering the discursive nature of the difference.

[^217]
### 3.3 Beyond Granada and after 1571

The previous section was a discontinuity in the analysis of the primary texts. This was the case because up to 1565 the trans-Atlantic communities can be compared without the disruption of the internal exile of the Granadans because of the second rebellion of the Alpujarras. Therefore, together the previous two sections provide the bookends of processes of construction and an understanding of actual versus perceived differences between Amerindians or descendants of peninsular Muslims and Castilian Spaniards.

The analysis of the terms used to refer to the Granadan community shows some of the steps in the processes of construction of this community as other. By 1568-71 these processes had not been completed and were interrupted by the internal peninsular displacement of the Granadans. Therefore, the increased use of the term "morisco" instead of the phrases "newly converted" or "new Christian" occurred later and was located elsewhere. Put differently, the internal exile of Granadans, descendants of Muslims, to other areas of Castile truncated the processes of construction of Granadans as other. Several of the Granadan documents from during and after the rebellion showed hints of the shifts in language that have been noted. Thus, the search for the ongoing process of construction is picked up outside of Granada and in this case, another set of documents from the Kingdom of Valencia. The reason for seeking the next steps in the processes in Valencia is twofold: first, the term "morisco" was prevalent in that region; second, an analysis of a substantial bound volume of primary texts is available (to test both methodology and identification processes).

This geographical shift is possible because there was a presence of other newly converted and new Christians throughout the rest of the peninsula. As mentioned before, Christians, descendants of Muslims, also lived in the kingdoms of Castile, Andalucía, Aragón, and Valencia. Whereas Granadans as well as Castilians were baptized en masse starting around 1501, the required baptisms of other Muslims occurred in the late 1520s. These communities also varied as regards the differing length of time Muslims in these regions had lived under Christian control. For example, Muslims in Toledo lived under Christian rule from the late eleventh century; in Valencia and Sevilla from the thirteenth. By contrast, the most recent Christian rule (and presence) in Granada only dated to 1492.

The difference in the timing of their baptism and their relationship to Christian rulers also affected the level of perceived Christianization, or even resistance, of these varied

Christian communities. For example, the baptized descendants of Muslims in Valencia had very close ties to the seigneurial class; this was not true in other realms. These ties seemingly allowed for economic interests to outweigh religious interests in Valencia, purportedly leading some seigneurs to allow their vassals tacitly to retain some Islamic practices. ${ }^{788}$ Moreover, Muslims in areas outside of Granada had often shared a cultural milieu with Christians from their region for a longer period, sometimes centuries; they had differed in religion but shared a common material and practical context (including language and dress).

The relative proportion of Christians who were baptized descendants of Muslims, and other Christians in these different regions, also varied. After 1571, few new Christians remained in Granada, whereas Valencia continued to have the largest population of new Christians (numerically and proportionally). The number of new Christians in Castile and Andalucía increased after 1568-71 with the influx of relocated Granadan Christians (moriscos granadinos); this influx also created tension between the native population of Castile, including the local baptized descendants of Muslims (moriscos antiguos), and the incoming groups from Granada. ${ }^{789}$

These varied contexts also provide an awareness of the immense diversity of experience for these various communities, and therefore of the limitations in extrapolating conclusions about all Christians who were baptized descendants of Muslims from one particular region or time-frame to another. This includes shedding light on the limitation of the use of the word "morisco" for all regions, contexts, and time-frames, without understanding the varied ways the term was used, and the shifts in usage and meaning over time. Before continuing with the Valencian documents, it must be noted (as shown in Section 3.4) that the use of the term "morisco" in Castile had a referential quality, and was needed after the influx of other "moriscos" as a means of differentiation.

As concluded from the analysis already done, the use of the term "morisco" as a homogenized term to describe the Granadan baptized descendants of Muslims after 1492 and before the internal displacement of 1571 is problematic. Instead, the preferred (historical) phrases to refer to this community were "newly converted" or "new Christians." Furthermore, in using the phrases "newly converted" or "new Christians," the authors of

[^218]these documents accepted the validity of the baptism of this population and likewise made a clear distinction away from their prior religious affiliation, Islam, or as moros. Moreover, the processes had not yet been completed of making "new" into a static category which was different from any other Christian: suspect, non-Christian, and non-Spanish.

Before analyzing further in Chapter 4 the data for the hypothesis that there is a disconnection between the terminology used in the primary texts and the language used by historians, here there is a preliminary presentation of a second set of documents from Rodrigo de Zayas' Les Morisques et le racisme d'État/Los Moriscos y el Racismo de Estado: Creación, persecución y deportación (1499-1612). ${ }^{790}$ Rodrigo de Zayas' tome includes 59(64) primary documents (48 from the Archivo Holland and 11(16) from the Biblioteca Zayas). The Archivo Holland spans the years 1542 to 1610 and is, by and large, concerned with the Kingdom of Valencia. Here in Chapter 3, the concern is initially to establish how the community of baptized descendants of Muslims was referred to in the primary documents included in the book, and how this compares or contrasts with the Granadan documents.

Later in Chapter 4 the concern will be with understanding what language was used by the historian, and how it differs from the primary texts. The in-depth quantitative analysis is presented in Chapter 4. Moreover, in Chapter 4, although some tables are provided, an extensive table of data is not as was provided before in the case of the Granadan documents. Yet, these documents were evaluated in the manner done before and the findings compared to the observations related to the Granadan texts. Here follows a summary of some relevant information about the collection and its context, and some initial conclusions and hypotheses.

Although there is variety in the documents included in Rodrigo de Zayas' work, all of the documents have to do with the aim of "true conversion" of these by and large baptized persons. In fact, this could be a crux of the matter: how to understand baptism when conversion was sought after the fact? Whereas in the Granadan documents there was a sense of frustration at the pace of acculturation (to normative and hegemonic

[^219]Castilian Christian practices), as will be seen in Chapter 4, what was being sought in the Valencian documents was different: "true conversion." The issue in Valencia would less likely be acculturation since the communities had co-existed for centuries; they shared a socio-cultural milieu. What changed was the religion of some. For example, an annotation in Archivo Holland's Document XIII stated, "the preaching that will be the basis of this conversion, should be started at present, the same as the catechism and the instruction." ${ }^{791}$ This is noted because this conversion was sought after baptism. The frustration was with how to increase the level of Christianization of an adult Christian community after baptism which required clerics to be assigned for the task of conversion. ${ }^{792}$

In looking at the collection, there are three document groupings of note. First, documents from the 1560s (Archivo Holland's Documents III-X), which spoke to "the matter of the moriscos of Valencia"; all correspondence between Philip II and his secretary Gonzalo Pérez. ${ }^{793}$ Second, Archivo Holland's Documents XI-XXI from 1581-1582, which had to do with a perceived Muslim conspiracy which led to the first ardent efforts to recommend the expulsions of all baptized descendants of Muslims. Third, Archivo Holland's Documents XXIV-XLIII (1595-1600) all had to do with the continuing possibility of conversion of this baptized community through preaching, catechizing, and instruction. There are 20 varied documents not grouped above that date from 1542 to 1610, which are referenced as necessary. ${ }^{794}$

These groupings, within the collection of documents, show variations in language usage: the first two groups were more apt to use the term "morisco" within a phrase than in

[^220]the third, although the third group used "morisco" alongside "new Christian" (nouveaux chrétiens) or "newly converted" (nouveaux convertis). The first two groups seem to have understood these baptized persons and their adherence to their prior faith as enemies of the state that must be dealt with—although Philip II continued to be committed to the possibility of indoctrination and true conversion through the end of his reign. The third group of documents was concerned with a renewed effort in instruction and the possibility of "true conversion" for this Christian community, therefore again referring to them as "new Christians" as was prevalent in the documents of Granada. It turned out that this was the last concerted effort at instruction and indoctrination: the final opportunity.

Comparing these observations with the findings from the Granadan documents leads to the conclusion that there did not exist a possibility for moriscos to convert, but that it still existed for new Christians. This is like the earlier finding, in the Granadan documents, that moriscos in fact may have been a subset of the community, which has been misread as relating to the whole community. This can more clearly be seen in documents that use both "new Christian" and "morisco." ${ }^{795}$

Archivo Holland's Document I from 1542 used the term "morisco" (20 times) and phrases "newly converted" or "new converts" (15 times), dealt with the Inquisition and the "Morisques du royaume de Valence," as well as made comparisons to the "Morisques du royaume de Castile" and the "Morisques du royaume de Grenade."796 There are several observations here: first, the term "morisco" was not regionally specific, as was the difference between the terms "mudéjar" and "morisco" seen in the Granadan documents; second, given the date of the document it would be expected that "newly converted" or "new converts" were more frequently used terms and phrases than the term "morisco." This also strengthens the hypothesis that "morisco" was more widely used in the Kingdom of Valencia, or was more widely used earlier than in Granada. In Section 3.4, other uses of the term "morisco" are seen in the expulsion-related documents, especially the use of the term to differentiate between groups of "moriscos."

In Document I, there were many arguments from barons and lords from Valencia who requested delays in enforcement for the new converts. As would be expected, when

[^221]compared to the Granadan documents, the concern of this document was for the new converts to abandon living like Muslims and leave behind their ceremonies and live like "good Christians." ${ }^{797}$ At this point, as in Granada, there was a sense that it was indeed possible for members of these communities to become "good Christians." As the century progressed, this possibility became more remote.

Incentives to live as "good Christians" included concessions regarding the confiscation of property by the Inquisition: an argument for leniency, similar to those of Granada and Castile. ${ }^{798}$ Similar to the documents from Granada, at times the phrase "newly converted" was qualified as "from the Muslims" ("ces Musulmans nouvellement convertis"). ${ }^{799}$ Finally, there was already a sense in Document I (from 1542) that delay in enforcement would not necessarily yield the desired results and that this reality needed to be balanced with the belief that there was a great danger of this community rising up if the concessions were not granted. Of note in this document was the distinction of moriscos from Moors: Moors in this document referred to north-African Muslims. ${ }^{800}$ This may be

[^222]part of the process of increased conflation of Africa and Islam which went hand in hand with the trans-Atlantic sub-Saharan African slave trade.

The following excerpt shows some of the challenges faced in Valencia, especially regarding the order of conversion and instruction in relation to the baptism of this community, as well as what effect, if any, delay in enforcement would have—all recurring themes throughout the documents:


#### Abstract

And regarding the length of time they request, that it be given to the said Moriscos so that they are instructed in the matters of the faith, even if they were given a very long time, they will always allege that they have not been educated, because some of the barons and lords resist and prevent with all their efforts, to have priests nor rectors in their churches, nor other ministers to administer the holy sacraments. They even abuse those that prescribe these Moriscos to learn the prayers of the church and do the things of Christians. Since they prepare these obstacles, they will still be able to ask for extensions of the time of instruction; Thus extension after extension, they will ensure that they never become Christian, and they will indirectly prevent the holy office to initiate proceedings against them. Although baptized, they publicly keep the Sect of Muhammad and blaspheme (against) that of Jesus Christ to the detriment of their souls and consciences, and giving a bad example and scandal to the faithful Christians. ${ }^{801}$


#### Abstract

sus gobernadores y alcáydes que allí tenían y no solamente favoresçian en esto a los sobre dichos mas a todos los otros moriscos de los reynos de Castilla que siendo baptizados se passavan en África para bivir como moros a los quales dichos señores y gobernadores les daban [guaje - tachado] guiaje [añadido] y favoresçían e guiaban para que se pasassen y ellos mismos los acompañavan hasta los embarcar en las fustas de los moros con los quales tenían los dichos señores a sus offiçiales para ello hecho su asiento y contratación, de lo qual ay muy cumplida y bastante información."


${ }^{801}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (French), Archivo Holland, Document I, 320: "Quant au délai qu'ils veulent que l'on accorde aux Morisques pour qu'ils soient instruits dans les choses de la foi, même si on leur donnait un très long délai, ils pourraient toujours alléguer qu'on ne les a pas instruits. En effet, certains de ces barons et seigneurs résistent et empêchent de toutes leurs forces que l'on envoie des curés et des recteurs dans leurs églises, et qu'il y ait des ministres pour administrer les saints sacrements. Ils soumettent même à de mauvais traitements ceux que prescrivent à ces Morisques, d'apprendre les prières et de vivre comme des chrétiens. Puisqu'ils dressent ces obstacles, ils pourront toujours demander des prolongations du délai d'instruction; et ainsi de prolongation en prolongation, ils feront en sorte qu'ils ne deviennent jamais chrétiens, et ils empêcheront indirectement le saint office d'entamer des procédures contre eux. Bien que baptisés, et blasphémeront (contre) ceux de Jésus-Christ au grand détriment de leur âmes et consciences, et en donnant un mauvais exemple et en scandalisant les chrétiens fidèles. " Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), 237-38: "Y quanto al término que piden, que se les de a los dichos moriscos para que sean instruidos en las cosas de la fee, aunque se les diesse muy largo tiempo, siempre an de alegar que no les an instruido porque algunos de los dichos varones y cavalleros resistin (sic) e impiden con todas sus fuerças que no se pongan curas ni rectores en las yglesias, ni aya otros ministros para que administren los sanctos sacramentos, antes hazen malos tractamientos a los que aprietan a los dichos moriscos [para] que deprendan las oraciones de a iglesia y que hagan las otras obras de christianos y poniendo ellos el dicho impediento, siempre podrán decir que se les prorogue el dicho tiempo para ser instruidos y así, yrán de prorogaçión em prorogaçión para que nunca sean christianos, e impedir indirectamente que el sancto offiçio no proçeda contra ellos y que siendo baptizados, tengan y guarden públicamente la secta de Mahoma y

Relevant to the context of Valencia and not shared in the context of Granada were the interests of the barons and lords with respect to the new converts who were their subjects. In New Spain, delays in enforcement (periods of grace) were never an issue.

Documents I and II serve as a good introduction to the themes that are found in the entire collection. Document II points in the direction of the main concern of the collection, namely "I'affaire des nouveaux convertis du royaume de Valence." 802 Moreover, the first cluster of documents (Archivo Holland's documents III-X), correspondence between Gonzalo Pérez and Philip II, can be summed up from Document IV (c. 1560s) where he argued that a council should meet in order
to debate the method to be applied to indoctrinate and to get them [the newly converted] to become Christians, likewise the punishment that will be inflicted if they do not become so, and everything that concerns this (matter), so that all is resolved and that, this time, it is decided who will be in charge of everything. ${ }^{803}$

Of immediate interest in Valencia, as was seen in Document I, was the effectiveness of the confiscation of property by the Inquisition for offenses by this community, since it had a direct negative impact on the Valencian seigneurs. Of further interest is ascertaining what was referred to as "l'affaire de Valence"; what historiographically frequently has been called the "problema morisco" (morisco problem). ${ }^{804}$

[^223]None of the documents in the first grouping referred to new converts, newly converted or new Christians. With one exception in Document X , which referred to the punishment of moriscos, ${ }^{805}$ all references to moriscos were in the context of the phrase "sujet/affaire des Morisques de Valence." Even if substituting another region, such as Granada for Valencia, this phrase of interest does not appear in any of the Granadan documents. Given that the documents in this grouping had a negative view of this community; it is not surprising that "morisco" was the preferred term. Yet, given the dates of the documents and the use of the term "morisco" within a particular phrase, it was not, as of yet, a full nominative substitution.

The documents in group two from 1581 and 1582 (Archivo Holland's documents XIXXI) had to do with "the conversion of the moriscos of the Kingdom of Valencia." ${ }^{806}$ As with the previous documents, this phrase did not have a parallel in the Granadan documents. As can be seen from these brief examples, so far, the term "morisco" was used differently in the two different contexts: Granada and Valencia. The relevant phrase from group two highlights two issues/terms: conversion and moriscos. The issue of conversion will be discussed further in Chapter 4.

On the heels of the annexation of Portugal (1580), the Crown had concerns on many fronts: France and England to the North, succession in Portugal to the West, threats from East and South from the Ottoman Turks, and Muslims from North Africa on the Mediterranean front. Patience for the pace of conversion after baptism was also waning. Yet, the communities in Valencia were repeatedly able to obtain edicts of grace (delays in enforcement) through the intervention of the Valencian seigneurs. The pace of conversion after baptism was quickly remedied across the Atlantic, by not permitting the baptism of adults without prior instruction in the faith—the Dominican practice. This is another example in which under similar circumstances the difference between Amerindian and Spaniard was understood as insurmountable, yet the distance between old Christians and new Christians in the peninsula was thought capable of being bridged.

[^224]Like the concession in Granada, after the baptisms of the Muslims of Valencia a forty-year grace period was obtained in 1528.807 The idea behind the edicts of grace was to allow for these communities to slowly leave their prior religious and cultural practices (especially those associated with Islam), and to be instructed in the faith and assimilated into the broader old Christian and so-called Spanish society. The practices or customs that were to be abandoned included language, dress, food, rites related to marriage and burial, etc.

In Granada, the conclusion in 1567 of their grace period and the unwillingness on the part of the Crown to extend it helped to fuel the second rebellion of the Alpujarras. Although feared, a similar rebellion did not occur in Valencia, Castile, Aragón, etc. ${ }^{808}$ In Valencia, the recently arrived Archbishop Juan de Ribera and the grand inquisitor Gaspar de Quiroga believed that this population of Christians had not been properly instructed in the Christian faith in the decades after their baptism and shared the
vision of the moriscos as an uninstructed and perfectible people and believed that given the opportunity to evangelize in an environment free of inquisitorial persecution, [Ribera] would succeed in convincing them to abandon their Islamic practices and beliefs. ${ }^{809}$

In Valencia, this community could negotiate a new edict of grace: the Concordia of 1571, "a royal order granting specific immunities to the twelve morisco communities in exchange for an annual subsidy of fifty thousand sueldos." ${ }^{810}$

The Concordia provided immunities and reduced fines and afforded an opportunity for renewed efforts at instruction, which had failed through the Inquisition. Instruction was now at the hands of the secular clergy. ${ }^{811}$ This was the agreement that was in place a decade later when there was again heightened distrust of these communities, and a sense (by some) that both the efforts founded in rigor (Inquisition) and in instruction had failed and would not yield the positive results envisioned or thought possible. Put differently, by the 1580s, many in the church believed that the charge or excuse of lack of instruction

[^225]was in fact false; they believed that members of these communities knew exactly what not to follow, that they willfully refused to adhere to the Christian (faith) way of life and maliciously refused to convert, although baptized. Thus, more and more of the new Christians were now discursively deemed "moriscos."

After 1582, the baptized descendants of Muslims were seen in Valencia as unable to convert to a life that matched their baptism. By 1582 Archbishop Juan de Ribera believed that the only solution was the expulsions of all members of these communities; Juan de Ribera believed that any request to delay enforcement by the Inquisition until these communities were instructed in the faith was just a way for them to continue to live freely in the Sect of Muhammad. ${ }^{812}$ This was a direct response to a request for a ten-year extension of the Concordia of 1571 because "they were never indoctrinated" ${ }^{813}$ and in exchange for a sum of money and "their faithfulness and the tranquility of the Kingdom." 814

The documents from group three were from a pivotal time in the history of this Valencian community, when there was heightened distrust based on rumors of a rebellious plot—rumors of this community conspiring with the Ottoman Turks and Muslims from North Africa (Berbery). ${ }^{815}$ These documents had to do with the possibility of conversion for this

[^226]Valencian baptized community through preaching, catechizing, and instruction. As late as 1610, the year after the first decree of expulsion, an argument was made to exempt some baptized descendants of Muslims who were deemed to be "good and faithful Christians" because
t]hey were the descendants of Moriscos who had converted on their own before the General repression, and who were not involved in the Rebellion of the Kingdom of Granada. In particular, concerning those who are considered old-Christians [not only in] their language, their costumes and their religious practices. [But] they confess, [have] communion, commemorate birthdays and [there are] others who say that they served against the rebellion campaign. ${ }^{816}$

Here even though the term "morisco" was used, this kind of morisco was and could be a "good and faithful Christian." The Valencian community further added that this exception be made only to those that could be proven to be "a true Christian and faithful vassal." ${ }^{817}$
(French), Archivo Holland, Document XIX, 375-376: "Etant donné la grande importance de cette affaire; l'insécurité qui résulte de la présence d'un grand nombre en Espagne; le fait qu'ils vivent généralement selon leurs lois; les contacts qu'ils ont, à ce qu'on dit, avec le Turc pour l'inciter à venir; le danger évident qu'ils feraient courir à ces royaumes si débarquait et bénéficiait de leur appui, et le fait qu'une opération d'envergure pourrait échouer en ce moment parce que sa Majesté est fort occupe par ici et que la chaleur est nuisible à sa santé, il fallait décider du moment opportun pour les saisir et les déporter hors des royaumes d'Espagne. Il faudra trouver le moyen de les déporter pendant l'hiver." Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), 305: "Que visto de quanta importançia es este negoçio, y la poca seguridad que ay de tener tanto número dellos en España, y lo que entiende de que generalmente biven en su ley, y los tratos que se dize tienen con el turco incitándole a que venga, y por el evidente peligro a que con ellos están estos rreynos si lo hiziese con su ayuda, y que sacar tan gran golpe como ay se podría malazer por agora estando su Magestad tan ocupado en estas partes y sus fuerças tan lexos del calor, que convenía dar quando se hubiesen de sacar y echar fuera de los rreynos despaña; en que se debe mirar para executar el sacarlos al ynbierno."
${ }^{816}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (French), Archivo Holland, Document XLV, 580-581: "que ne seront pas expulsés les Morisques dont les Evêques auraient la certitude qu'ils sont de bons et fidèles Chrétiens..." "au sujet des descendants des Morisques qui s'étaient convertir de leur propre chef avant la répression générale, et qui ne participèrent pas à la Rébellion du Royaume de Grenade. En particulier, au sujet de ceux qui sont considérés comme des vieux-Chrétiens de pas leur langue, leurs costumes et leurs pratiques religieuses; ceux qui se confessent, communient, commémorent les anniversaires et autres qui affirment qu'ils ont servi dan (la campagne contre) La Rébellion dudit Royaume." Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), 541: "lo que se debe hazer con los Moriscos descendientes de los que se convirtieron antes que se consiguiesse la redución general, de su propia voluntad, y no concurrieron en la Rebelión del Reyno de Granada. Y en particular, de los que se an tratado como Christianos viejos en la lengua, en el ábito y en los actos de Religión; confessando, y comulgando, dexando aniversarios y otras memorias pías, y que se han mezclado con Christianos viejos y apartádose de los del Reyno de Granada, y otros, los quales alegan que sirvieron en la Rebelión del dicho Reyno." See footnotes 874, 875.
${ }^{817}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (French), Archivo Holland, Document XLV, 580-581: "Je m'en remets particulièrement à vos consciences pour que, sous aucun prétexte de respect humain, vous ne fassiez d'exceptions pour ceux dont vous ne seriez pas vous-mêmes convaincus qu'ils ont été, et qu'ils sont, de vrais Chrétiens et de fidèles vassaux." Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), 542: "Os encargo mucho la conciencia, para que por ningún respeto humano reservéys a ninguno de quien vos mismo no tengáys entera satisfación de que a sido, y es, verdadero Christiano y fiel vasallo."

Therefore, morisco was not yet fully, or solely, negatively fixed, although it was the term by then most commonly used.

Notwithstanding the use of the term "morisco," as seen in the Granadan documents, the above exception was important because their baptism predated both rebellions in Granada (1499-1501 and 1568-1570): as seen with those that sought oldChristian status in Granada. Furthermore, not only had they been baptized at the right time, meaning that there was no possibility that their baptism was forced (or of dubious context), they had assimilated into the broader old-Christian habits: "they are considered as old Christians in terms of their language, their costume and their religious practices." 818

The idea that there were "good and faithful Christians" who were baptized descendants of Muslims kept alive the possibility that "full" conversion was indeed possible on a wider scale, and had indeed been possible when force was not used. But this also left open the possibility that it might have been difficult to differentiate between a "good and faithful Christian" descendant of someone who was baptized prior to 1500 (or late 1520s in other regions), and a "good and faithful Christian" descendant of someone who was baptized after the rite was decreed. As seen in the documents from Granada, the year 1500 determined whether a person or community would be deemed a new Christian or newly converted rather than old Christian. This again shows that the baptisms were in part required with the expectation that it was possible for Muslims to fully become Christians, which in the case of the peninsula also meant that they could acculturate fully to Christian (Castilian) cultural norms. As has been noted, in New Spain this was never the expectation.

In 1610, the Archbishop of Seville also advocated for the baptized descendants of Muslims in this region (not Granadans but moriscos antiguos), and argued that they were not a political or military threat to the king: "for they are not given to participating in uprisings or taking up arms." ${ }^{819}$ The Archbishop further argued that some were indeed Christian, not just in appearance:

Among the male Moriscos who are known to be descendants of Moriscos, there are some who appear to be Christians. Among all of these, some of them must really be. They receive the sacraments, raise their children with

[^227]virtue, and lead them to study... [yet] in this decree, they are punished, exiled, despoiled of their property. ${ }^{820}$

The Archbishop also agreed with the argument that the expulsion would have negative economic repercussions for the royal treasury. It seems in this case that the use of the term "morisco" here was related to moro (as Muslim), as in the phrase "descendants of moriscos," used in a similar way to the phrase chosen in this thesis "baptized descendants of Muslims." This is different than the use of "morisco" as a person incapable of conversion.

Just as there was this plea in 1610 on behalf of a specific group of the baptized descendants of Muslims, as late as 1600 there was a sense among some in the Kingdom of Valencia that conversion was still possible after baptism, if only by removing all exterior signs of Muslims: no longer writing in Arabic, changing their clothing, language and eating habits, and taking on the habits of good Christians. ${ }^{821}$ The same lists of practices seen in the Granadan documents and repeated in most of the secondary literature. It was understood that it was their adherence to these customs that would prevent this baptized community from habituating themselves to the customs of the Spanish (e.g. Christian) political and Christian society. ${ }^{822}$ Even at this late date, this was an expressed possibility, even in documents also stating the impossibility of their true conversion.

With the introduction here to the documents found in Rodrigo de Zayas' tome, in Chapter 4 there is a more in-depth and quantitative analysis of the terms and how the

[^228]terms match, or not, with the language chosen by the author in the secondary analysis. In the Valencian documents, it can be noted that there was an increase in the usage of the term "morisco" with mostly a negative connotation. Furthermore, the term "morisco" was more prevalent than the phrases "newly converted" or "new Christian," but not yet always co-terminus or a full substitution: not metonymy; thus, this is indicative that "morisco" may in fact, as a negative term, be used for part of the community. At this point under the umbrella of baptized descendants of Muslims there were both "new Christians" and "moriscos." All the terms were co-existing in the "third space"; there was greater multiplicity of language, and its meaning and usage.
"New Christian" or "newly converted" was more apt to appear in documents that still held the opinion that a conversion that matched their baptism was still possible, even up to the eve of the decrees of expulsions. It was briefly noted, and is analyzed in the next section, that a use of "morisco" was to distinguish different communities of baptized descendants of Muslims. The language in these documents also begins to lean toward the noted conflation of religion and ethnicity (somatization), and the impossibility of conversion, albeit coexisting with possibility; not a uniform potential outcome (yet).

### 3.4 Decrees of Expulsion: 1610-1614

The preceding sections taken together show variability in terminology beyond "morisco" that changed as time progressed and differed by regions in the peninsula. The following analysis of a third set of documents-18 documents including expulsion decrees from 1609 through 1614-confirms and strengthens the observations made thus far. ${ }^{823}$ For instance, these documents taken together are a clear example of the purported regional differences and the assertion that the terminology was not yet completely fixed, even negatively, at the beginning of the seventeenth century. The changes that occurred over more than a century went from a religious definition of the term "morisco" as related to Moor (as Muslim), to a mostly religious and racial/ethnic definition of "morisco" as nonChristian and non-Spanish, to ultimately a racial/ethnic definition of "morisco" as nonSpanish (or non-"white"), as seen in the Sistema de Castas.

[^229]There was a progression from a static or stable definition to a hybrid or third space definition to a different static definition. The first of these was studied in the Granadan documents. Then, changes were discerned in the Valencian documents after the internal displacement. Furthermore, it is posited that the non-Spanish and non-Christian morisco was discursively necessary for the expulsions at the beginning of the seventeenth century; yet, the racialization of the term was not fully completed until the eighteenth century, as seen in the trans-Atlantic caste system.

The language of these documents, as the language of the documents written around 1568-1571, had a unique place in the long-term meta-processes of othering seen for Christian communities associated with descendants of Muslims in the peninsula, although traced even further back to the fifteenth century. The terminology shows the increased nominal use of the term "morisco" (nominalization), including the regional differences in the way the term "morisco" was used, as well as the use of other terminology to refer to these communities, indicating that the term "morisco" was not yet fully static, homogenous, or universally, in both usage and meaning. Although the definition of "morisco" at the beginning of the seventeenth century was far from the definition at the turn of the sixteenth century, it still retained a religious connotation and had not been fully racialized as the eventual definition would be across the Atlantic.

The following table includes tallies of the referential language of interest in these documents. The documents are listed in chronological order and are identified by region.

Table 3.1: Expulsion-Related Documents (1609-1614)

| Date | Title | Language used (frequency) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 21 SEP 1609 | Regarding lactating <br> children (Valencia) | Moriscos (7) <br> Old Christian (4) <br> Christian (1) <br> Madre mora o judía (ambiguous) (1) |
| 22 SEP 1609 | Decree of expulsion for <br> the Kingdom of Valencia | Moriscos (12) <br> Old Christian (3) <br> Christian (2) |
| 9 DEC 1609 | Decree of Expulsion for <br> Andalucía and <br> Extremadura | Cristianos nuevos moriscos (3) <br> Old Christian (2) <br> Christian (1), Christian (descriptive 3) <br> Moriscos (2) |
| 28 DEC 1609 | Document from Castilla | Cristianos nuevos moriscos (1) |
| 24 JAN 1610 | List of exemptions to the <br> expulsions (Granada) 824 | Moriscos (7) <br> Old Christian (4) <br> Moros (ambiguous 1) |
| 29 MAY 1610 | Document from <br> Catalonia <br> seem Christian (1) |  |
|  | Moriscos (25) <br> Old Christian (5) <br> New Christians (4) |  |
| "raça de Moriscos" (1) |  |  |
| Christian (descriptive 1) |  |  |

[^230]| Date | Title | Language used (frequency) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 29 MAY 1610 | Document from Aragón | Moriscos (12) <br> Old Christian (4) <br> New Christian (1) <br> Christian (descriptive 2) <br> Good Christians (1) |
| 10 JUL 1610 | Document from Castilla | Moriscos (16) <br> Cristianos nuevos moriscos (3) <br> Nación (3) <br> Christian (descriptive 3) <br> Moro (as Muslim 1) |
| 16 JAN 1611 | Exemptions by the bishop of Orihuela, Murcia | Descendants of Moriscos (7) <br> Moriscos (3) <br> Tan moros como los de Berbería (1) <br> Ceremonias de moros (4) <br> Moros (2) <br> Good or children of or be Christian <br> (3) |
| 3 FEB 1611 | Regarding children (under 7) in Valencia | Moriscos (2) <br> Old Christian (1) <br> Moros (1) |
| 22 MAR 1611 | The expulsion of those who stayed or returned. (Castilla) ${ }^{825}$ | Moriscos (non-specific 5) <br> Good Christians (1) <br> Christian (descriptive 1) <br> Moriscos from Granada (2) <br> Moriscos (antiguos) from Castilla (1) <br> Old Christian (2) <br> Esta gente (1) |

[^231]| Date | Title | Language used (frequency) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 8 OCT 1611 | Expulsion from the Ricote Valley | Cristianos nuevos moriscos (1) <br> Moriscos antiguos known as mudéjares (1) <br> Antiguos (1) <br> Cristianos nuevos moriscos aunque sean antiguos (2) <br> Moriscos que no fuesen antiguos (1) <br> Morisco (non-specific 2) <br> Christian (descriptive 2) <br> Old Christian (5) <br> Naturales ...o no naturales (1) <br> Nación (1) |
| 21 AUG 1612 <br> 19 SEP 1612 | The expulsion of Moriscos who stayed or returned. ${ }^{826}$ | Moriscos (7) <br> Gente (2) |
| 19 OCT 1613 | Decree of expulsion from the Ricote Valley | Moriscos mudéjares y no mudéjares (2) <br> Mudéjares (1) <br> Moriscos mudéjares (2) <br> Moriscos (13) <br> Old Christian (5) <br> Nación (1) |
| 26 OCT 1613 | The expulsion of renegade and hidden Moriscos | Moriscos (6) <br> Moriscos...así antiguos como nuevos (1) |
| 20 FEB 1614 | Letter from the Counsel of State ending the expulsions (Ricote Valley) | Moriscos (4) |
| 2 JUN 1614 | End of the expulsions in Castilla | Moriscos (6) |
| 2 JUN 1614 | End of the expulsions in Catalonia | Moriscos (4) |

${ }^{826}$ Location unknown.

Table 3.2: Summary

| Term/ Phrase | No. of times |
| :---: | :---: |
| Moriscos (not inclusive of the phrases below) | 133 |
| Descendants of moriscos | 7 |
| Race of moriscos | 1 |
| Moriscos from Granada | 2 |
| Moriscos (antiguos) from Castilla | 1 |
| Moriscos...así antiguos como nuevos | 1 |
| Moriscos que no fuesen antiguos | 1 |
| Antiguos | 1 |
| Moriscos mudéjares | 2 |
| Moriscos mudéjares y no mudéjares | 2 |
| Moriscos antiguos known as mudéjares | 1 |
| Term/ Phrase | No. of times |
| Mudéjares | 1 |
| Old Christian | 35 |
| Christian (descriptive) | 12 |
| Christian and "good or children of or be Christian" and "seem Christian" | 8 |
| Cristianos nuevos moriscos | 8 |
| Cristianos nuevos moriscos, aunque sean antiguos | 2 |
| Moros | 5 |
| Tan moros como los de Berbería | 1 |
| Madre mora o judía | 1 |
| Ceremonias de moros | 4 |
| New Christians | 5 |
| Good Christians | 2 |
| Nación | 4 |
| Gente | 3 |
| Naturales o no naturales | 1 |

In these documents, there were at least 179 mentions of baptized descendants of Muslims. Of these 179 references $74.7 \%$ (133) used only the term "morisco" (not as part of a phrase) and another 21 (11.7\%) instances included the term "morisco" as part of a phrase. Both total $86.4 \%$ of all the terms and phrases tallied. The term "morisco" seems to be ubiquitous once the expulsions came around. Yet, most of the phrases that included the term "morisco" were examples of the need that existed to differentiate between different groups of "moriscos" by specifying communities, as different from other communities, of baptized descendants of Muslims, rather than referential in contrast to old Christians. This was a need in Castile after the internal displacement of Granadans around 1571. Again, if the two communities had been homogenous, there would not have been a specific need to distinguish within "sub-communities"-between moriscos antiguos and moriscos granadinos.

It was noted earlier that in the Granadan documents the term "mudéjar" was generally used for Muslims from outside of the Kingdom of Granada. Now, with the displacement of Granadans to other areas of Castile, the regional differences of these communities come to the fore. Therefore, since the term "mudéjar" was no longer relevant, differentiating among "moriscos" became necessary. For example, when the "type" of morisco was specified, moriscos could be some version of antiguos (3) or granadinos (2) or mudéjares (3) or cristianos nuevos (10) or just nuevos (1). They could also be described by the "type" of morisco they were not: "moriscos no antiguos" (1) or "moriscos no mudéjares" (1). The existence of further specificity of "morisco"-a proliferation of terms or phrases-further opens the possibility that there could be moriscos that did not fit into any of these documented "types."

The specificity of the type of morisco can be distinguished regionally. "Moriscos antiguos" were from Castile, "moriscos mudéjares" were from Murcia. It was clear that mudéjares and antiguos were not from Granada. Yet, it is not clear from these documents whether the non-specific moriscos were from Granada or Valencia, or elsewhere; yet, given the previous analysis Valencia may be more likely than Granada, for example. Thus, it may be determined based on the other types of moriscos or other referential phrases used in the various documents. In the decrees of expulsion from Valencia, Cataluña and Aragón, the term used was "morisco" and there were clear references to "herejes, apóstatas, y proditores." Yet, the decrees for Castile, Andalucía, and

Extremadura make mention of "cristianos nuevos moriscos." There are some phrases found in this set of documents that were not widely seen in documents studied thus far: "cristianos nuevos moriscos" (7), "raça de moriscos" (1), "moriscos antiguos" in Castile as differentiated from "moriscos granadinos," and "moriscos mudéjares" as one community was known in the Ricote Valley (Murcia).

The phrase "moriscos mudéjares" seems to combine what was seen in the Granadan documents, or the use of "mudéjares" for descendants of Muslims from outside of Granada, and what was seen in the Valencian documents where "morisco" without additional specificity was widely used. This makes geographical sense given that the region of Murcia in the sixteenth century was part of the Kingdom of Castilla and was also bounded by the region of Andalucía which included the former Kingdom of Granada, the Kingdom of Valencia, and the Mediterranean Sea. Being bounded by these regions it seems appropriate that the phrases used included both terms together: "mudéjares" and "moriscos." The phrase "nuevos convertidos" superseded both "cristianos nuevos" and "nuevamente convertidos" in the documents from Valencia, which was supplanted by "morisco." Yet how then can the phrase "cristianos nuevos moriscos" found in some of the expulsion decrees be explained?

The phrase "cristianos nuevos moriscos" occurred five times in two documents studied for this thesis from the Rodrigo de Zayas volume (Chapter 4): both documents were expulsion-related, from 1610, and printed in Granada. ${ }^{827}$ The phrase "cristianos nuevos moriscos" occurs 10 times in four of 18 of the expulsion-related documents. The phrase is specific to Castile six times, three times specific to Andalucía and Extremadura, and was found once in a document from Murcia without additional specificity. In the Murcian document the other two occurrences (tallied under Castile) further specify that the cristianos nuevos moriscos were antiguos, which was a term used with Castile. Except for one document where the phrase "cristianos nuevos moriscos" was the only reference to the community, the phrase co-existed in the other three documents with various other terms and phrases. The phrase "cristianos nuevos moriscos" was not found in any document from Valencia or Cataluña. Another phrase not seen before is "descendants of Moriscos." This phrase occurred seven times in one document (from Murcia). Was this a

[^232]way to encompass both "moriscos antiguos" and "moriscos granadinos"? The phrase "cristianos nuevos moriscos" coexisted in these documents with the term "morisco."

Widening the language study done for the Granadan documents and compared to some of the language differences identified for Valencia, there are at least two other phrases from the expulsion-related documents that should be addressed at this point. In the case of Castile, after the internal displacement of Granadans, language that distinguished the recent arrivals (Granadans) from the local population (Castilians) was used. In this specific case, the difference was between "moriscos granadinos" and "moriscos antiguos." Unless the focus is moved to texts from Castilla, the phrase "moriscos antiguos" did not appear or become relevant.

The idea and differentiation of "moriscos antiguos" from "moriscos granadinos" becomes extremely important when it comes to seeking exemptions from expulsion. This was a kind of exemption, the recognition that moriscos antiguos had longer ties to the Kingdom of Castile, were in fact assimilated or acculturated in many ways, and were perhaps indistinguishable from the rest of the Castilian population, whereas moriscos granadinos were, at least discursively, a distinct community—an other within the emerging other (minority within minority). Moriscos antiguos were different because they did not pay farda or additional fees as the moriscos granadinos had, and as expressed by Francisco Núñez Muley.

It has been argued in this project, based on the analysis of primary documents, that using the term "morisco" as metonymy for all descendants of Muslims (as a homogenous community), for all time-frames and localities, is not appropriate. Although the processes of nominalization and othering indeed eventually made the term "morisco" static in meaning and use, it has also been reiterated that the completion of these processes historically and historiographically happened after the peninsular expulsions of 1609-1614.

Thus, it has been posited through the analysis of the primary documents that there were language shifts from

> "moro" (primarily a religious term) to "cristiano nuevo" or "nuevamente convertido" to
> "nuevos convertidos" (phrase unique to Valencia) to "morisco," and after the expulsion to "moro" again, albeit with a different connotation of "moros," once again an ethnic term (and related in the Sistema de Castas the full
racialization of the term morisco)..$^{828}$ Yet, although this is an overall arc or progression, which seems to have coincided with the increased conflation of religion and blood, there are instances where the transitions were not as neat as a model like this would suggest. Just as there were occasions on which maurophilia and maurophobia coexisted, there were occasions when a variety of these terms or phrases also co-existed and were not coterminus. All this is to say that there were still exceptions to this model, and yet these very exceptions support the proposal that the term "morisco" was not as fixed as has been proposed or in the way that it has been (over)used by historians.

The analysis found in this chapter has occurred at several levels, including a quantitative presentation used for qualitative observations. Overall, there was an analysis of four sets of documents, albeit with difference emphases. The four sets of documents were from Granada, New Spain, Valencia, and expulsion-related. The various sets of documents revealed varying language uses across time and regions. Furthermore, when these sets of documents were compared to one another, conclusions emerged including about how the language used to describe the communities of baptized descendants of Muslims changed in usage and meaning as the century progressed, and was different in different regions. The subtle changes in usage and meaning further revealed that the terminology had a hybrid and non-static quality, thus defying being given a fixed definition, or using any one term as metonymy or substitution for another. Furthermore, various meanings and usages coexisted without being co-terminus.

Specifically, it was identified that the term "morisco" is problematic for the Granadan context prior to 1568-71, and that "newly converted" and "new Christian" were more appropriate. The shift identified in the language is summarized in the following table:

```
"moro/ Muslim" prior to 1501
    "new Christian/ newly converted" (through baptism) and
    "morisco" (n.) from 1501 to 1571, inversely progressing
"morisco" after }1571\mathrm{ and used for the expulsion and beyond.
```

[^233]The shift in language was not completed by the second rebellion, but continued through the 1609-14 expulsions and beyond, yet outside of Granada, and eventually outside the peninsula. Ultimately, the shift in language fixed the term "morisco" as non-Christian and non-Spanish, as other; as a fully somatized term.

These conclusions also helped to elucidate questions regarding degrees of difference between the baptized descendants of Muslims from other Christians in the peninsula, and discourses related to these constructed differences. Here the comparison with Amerindians in New Spain revealed that the differences were more constructed than actual, or less apparent than assumed, and mostly in the discursive realm. The hybrid language used in the peninsula, including the term "morisco" which could not revert to "moro" (and later could not move to "Christian") implied the possibility of baptism being the first step in a process of conversion which could be completed.

The newly converted and new Christian was thought capable of becoming a "good and faithful Christian." When for some this became impossible, the hybridity and nonfixidity of the phrases "newly converted" or "new Christian" had to be changed for another term: "morisco." Substituting the term "morisco" prematurely or arbitrarily runs the risk of hiding these processes of construction and the changes of language, but also erases the parts of the communities who were not morisco, the new Christians. These were the processes of nominalization and proliferation of categories.

By understanding the language used in the primary documents to refer to these communities and how it differed from another contemporary community of converts (Amerindians); it is also argued that the term "morisco" was not initially or always used in a racialized way, as was the case in the Sistema de Castas. Again and again, the documents show that in the peninsula at first it was thought that there was a possibility of assimilating or acculturating and integrating into the broader old Christian and Castilian culture, or to overcome the new in conversion; but the indios, baptized or not, remained indios, and thus inherently other, without the counterpart expectation of acculturation. The racially other in the peninsula was a construct, whereas across the Atlantic there was a clearer or more evident initial racial distinction between Spaniards and Amerindians. Eventually the Sistema de Castas functioned similarly to what has been noted for the peninsula, to construct otherness, since it became a way of maintaining racial difference (and hierarchy) even when difference was no longer "visible," discernible, or epidermic.

This reification or construction in the peninsula was also specific geographically and temporally, but was mostly completed by later historians taking at face value the writings referring to the so-called "morisco problem" or "moriscos."

The conclusions in Chapter 3 serve as the foundation for the analysis in Chapter 4. Having looked at the primary documents from Granada and Valencia in various collections of texts, the analysis of the language used by historians in their own analysis of these texts is the focus of the beginning of the next chapter. This analysis shows and uncovers a posited disconnection between the language of the primary texts and the secondary literature. A more in depth analysis then follows, which includes the texts of Rodrigo de Zayas' tome and the Memorandum of Francisco Núñez Muley to demonstrate the disconnection and the missed opportunities. Finally, a theological underpinning of the construction of the other is revealed by showing the ultimate impact the dissociation of baptism and conversion from one another had as a discursive justification of the expulsions.

## Chapter 4: The Eternal "Morisco"

In Chapter 3 there was a presentation and analysis of the referential terminology used to denote the baptized descendants of Muslims in Granada and other places in the peninsula, the language used to describe baptized indios in New Spain, the different uses of "morisco" on both sides of the Atlantic, and an introduction to the changes in terminology gleaned after 1571, primarily in Valencia. For Granada, the referential language most commonly used was that of "new Christian" or "newly converted" and "morisco." A principal conclusion from that analysis was that for Granada, the term "morisco" in its nominative form was not the best metonymic term or substitution prior to the second rebellion of the Alpujarras. "Morisco" at best was a term for only part of the community in Granada, was more significant outside of Granada, for example Valencia, and was even more appropriate after the general expulsions of 1609-14.

Historiographically, prior to the internal displacement of Granadans to other regions of Castile in 1571 , using the term "morisco" obfuscates some of the opportunities present in studying this Granadan community without an a priori bias toward this community as non-Christian (and non-Spanish). This use works as a retroactive condemnation and justification. As seen in the documents from Valencia and the various expulsion-related documents, there is an understanding that the use of the term "morisco" differed in other regions, contexts, and time-frames, and therefore it is not a useful metonymy. In the case of Valencia, for example, the term "morisco" was used more frequently as a polemical term for what has been referred to as the "morisco question/problem/affair." Moreover, if real rather than discursive, it could only be for a subset of the communities. ${ }^{829}$

Other findings in Chapter 3 noted shifts and changes in referential language as the sixteenth century progressed, which were part of discursive processes of construction of these communities of Christians, as homogenous or one community, or as different (other), which helped to textually justify the expulsions. Difference (initially religious) was somatized on the colonial body and thus was inherent and could not be changed. The colonial body was equally the Amerindian, the African, and the baptized descendants of Jews and Muslims.

[^234]Underlying the analysis of referential language in Chapter 3 was the hypothesis that there was an inherent difference between the way the term "morisco" was used in the primary texts and the way historians use the term in their description and understanding of these communities. It was proposed that the historians' morisco is a tacit acceptance of the official construction of this whole community as, in reality, other (non-Christian and non-Spanish). This is given a failure, at times, to notice that the very processes of construction and later of justifications of the expulsions necessitated the promulgation and reiteration of the very language (with its changes in usage and meaning) as official propaganda. The propaganda was part of the discourse; the problem lies with the reification of that same propaganda. Put differently, the term "morisco" was necessary for the discursive justifications of the expulsions.

In Chapter 2 the historiographical biases were noted and addressed; here in Chapter 4 those historiographical errors can be elucidated and understood as they relate to the context of concern in this project. ${ }^{830}$ Trevor J. Dadson states this problem in the following manner,

The danger with official propaganda is not so much that those who purvey it end up believing it, which is bad enough, but that those who come later do so. Too much morisco historiography in fact has been based on what the government of Philip III and Lerma wanted us all to believe. ...many historians have willingly gone along with that 'official' view, rarely questioning the validity or reliability of what they were reading. ${ }^{831}$

In the case of this project this is seen in the use of the term "morisco." Dadson's observation is in the context of an investigation which shows that there were baptized descendants of Muslims who remained in the peninsula after 1609-14.832 Another aspect of Dadson's argument is the acknowledgement that this was an expulsion, at least technically speaking, of a community of Christians-something not frequently noted. Many historians do not acknowledge explicitly or implicitly that moriscos could be Christian, therefore the fact that Christians expelled other Christians is not narrated, but instead is made invisible or erased.

[^235]Trevor J. Dadson, in writing about the justifications for the expulsions, writes about "people who had been baptized in the Christian faith" and reminds the reader that "Jews (in 1492) were not baptized Christians." ${ }^{833}$ These two seemingly self-evident phrases are rare among historians of these communities, who prefer the notion that they wholly and completely remained a community of Muslims and thus the difference, in discourse and history, was evident and real rather than constructed.

The historiographical summary in Chapter 2 noted that there has been a prevailing view that
all Muslims who were baptized and their baptized descendants outwardly and publicly practiced Christianity, but privately and interiorly practiced Islam; ${ }^{334}$
thus, there were crypto-Muslims and non-Christian. This view was augmented by the dominant assessment that they were also an "inassimilable community," or nonSpanish. ${ }^{835}$ Celestino López Martínez sees the community "as a homogenous inassimilable group [which was] resistant to any form of integration and deeply antiChristian." ${ }^{836}$ With this as the dominant historiography, the binary opposition of Christian to Moor is carried through to the binary opposition of Christian to morisco even if the latter was also, if just theoretically, a Christian.

It is in this context that book titles such as Louis Cardaillac's Moriscos y Cristianos, un enfrentamiento polémico, 1492-1640 does not seem out of place. ${ }^{837}$ Yet, the polemic was not only between those who may have continued to adhere to Islam versus Christianity; there were also polemics, such as that of Francisco Núñez Muley, within different Christian communities (inter- vs. intra-). Therefore, this community was constructed as incapable and unwilling to be both Christian (through conversion) and Spanish (through assimilation or acculturation). However, as noted in Chapter 2 and shown in Chapter 3, the use of the term "morisco" was part of othering processes which were necessary for the justifications of the expulsions. Yet, there is no consensus or

[^236]acknowledgment that the terminology itself, and changes throughout the century, were part of these processes.

Section 4.1 of this chapter presents some examples of the historians' morisco which are different than the morisco of the primary texts: the works analyzed include Vincent Barletta's analysis of Francisco Núñez Muley's Memorandum, and Barbara Fuch's study on the transition between maurophilia and maurophobia (Exotic Nation). Building on Section 4.1 and the earlier Section 3.3, in Section 4.2 there is an application of both the quantitative analysis and the disconnect in terminology for the Archivo Holland and the Biblioteca Zayas found in Rodrigo de Zayas' tome, and Antonio Garrido Aranda's Moriscos e Indios. The analysis included in sections 4.1 and 4.2 does not aim to challenge these historians in their scholarly endeavor; their works are all important contributions to the study of the history of these peninsular communities. Rather, the aim is to illustrate the ways that in historiography the processes of othering have been missed or obfuscated by the premature or metonymic use of the term "morisco," and to show that the final step in the construction of these communities as the community of "moriscos" was completed and reified in the historiographic realm. Finally, after the analysis of the discursive use of the terminology, there is a presentation of the theological discourse which was used to justify the expulsion. This occurs in Section 4.3, which deals with the dissociation of baptism from conversion.

### 4.1 The Historians' "Morisco"

The term "morisco" may at times be closer to the keyword search of a library catalogue than to the possible reality lived by the so-called moriscos in the peninsula. In order to find, in the catalogue of a university library, books relevant to the history of the Granadans in the sixteenth century, the term "morisco" would be a useful keyword to search. Many of the results would refer to a "common" group of people (or part thereof) in the peninsula in the sixteenth century and early-seventeenth century that was expelled in the years 1609-1614. ${ }^{838}$ As a homogenized nominal term, the preponderant definition of "morisco" is as a baptized descendant of a Muslim; yet, in the sixteenth century, the term "morisco" (in its nominative form, like the phrases "new Christian" or "newly converted")

[^237]was a non-stable, hybrid, and constructed term which, in different places and different times fell somewhere between the more static categories of "Moor" and "Christian."
$$
\text { Moor } \leftarrow \text { morisco } \rightarrow \text { Christian }
$$

In this continuum of difference, the term "morisco" fell somewhere in between Moor (as Muslim) and Christian. Although the word "morisco" was used as a noun in some of the documents, the word "morisco" was also used as a descriptive term best translated into English as "Moorish." This was part of a process of nominalization or shift from the less variable descriptive use to the static use of the nominative morisco. Whereas the terms "Moorish" and "morisco" were used in the same manner when used in a descriptive form, such as Moorish dress or morisco dress, ${ }^{839}$ the same is not true in referring to this group of people as the "moriscos" and not as "the Moorish." Furthermore, the noun form of Moorish (Moor) was not used to describe the community baptized into Christianity, because Moor was equated to Muslim in the sixteenth century. ${ }^{840}$ Therefore, the term "morisco" is at best a useful keyword but mostly an inaccurate metonym, especially for Granada, and before 1571.

Although some historians equate Muslim with morisco, as a non-stable hybrid term the word "morisco" does not ignore the baptism of these persons, although their Christianity was diminished, but initially it also could not easily revert to moro (and did not fully discursively revert to moro before 1609-14). More clearly, the phrases "new Christian" or "newly converted" implied baptism. Before the expulsions, if the Church and the State had legally allowed the return to Islam of members of these communities, they would have lost one of their mechanisms of control of these colonial subjects, namely the Inquisition, which required the communities to be under the control of the Church. After 1609-14, the justifications of the expulsions required that "morisco" be moved closer and closer to "Moor" and eventually even be overtaken by it. Or from a different point of view, the justifications of the expulsions required the impossibility of morisco, and prior to it new

[^238]Christian, to fully progress toward Christian (or toward Spanish). The moriscos were defined as non-Christian and non-Spanish.

In a 1601 letter to Philip III, Archbishop Ribera wrote,
We know from moral evidence that all of them are moros who live in the sect of Muhammad, maintaining and observing (to the extent possible) the ceremonies of the Quran and disrespecting the holy laws of the Catholic Church: so much that properly speaking, we should call them not moriscos but moros. ${ }^{841}$

This comment by Archbishop Ribera was further strengthened by his belief that this community of moros was responsible for the military threats faced by Spain from England, France, Turks, and Berbers, and even Protestants: a fifth-column. ${ }^{842}$ This statement also confirms that at this late time there was still space between the words "moro" and "morisco." The related idea that moriscos were indeed moros was not only held by Christians who excluded this whole community from the rest of the communities of Christians, but it is one that a variety of scholars have held on to, and thus, whether they have chosen to call this community Muslims or crypto-Muslims. Yet, as shown, it could only be a metonym for part of the community, not for the whole.

The term "morisco" in secondary literature is homogenized to mean only a baptized descendant of a Muslim who remained a Muslim, even though a morisco officially could not be a Muslim because of baptism. Then, in historiography from the start moriscos have been non-Christian or could only be understood as non-Christian, with the counterparts to this being non-Castilian and non-Spanish. The homogenized use of the term loses its hybridity and nuance and helps to complete the processes of construction of the other and boundary (re)inscription.

Over a particular period, the term "moro" was not equated to "morisco" or stopped being related to it; morisco now became its own category—neither Christian nor Muslim. (Non-Muslim because "morisco" in the peninsula is eventually discarded when the community was discursively returned to Moor). When seen as part of processes of construction of the other, it can be understood that embedded in the use of the term was the inherent bias toward the failure of conversion for this community. This usage becomes problematic especially since this bias was not equally found in the phrases "newly

[^239]converted" or "new Christian," in which the possibility of conversion was still implied, or the possibility of completion of the progression toward old Christian, before the nominalization process was completed.

In maintaining the religious "Moorishness" or "Muslimness" of these communities, the writers (including historians) have not dealt with (or addressed) the indelibility of baptism as a sacrament, and the possibility of conversion by making Islam as indelible as Christianity—or by making conversion impossible (the impossible metanoia)—something that was needed to expel members of these communities from the peninsula. In fact, there was painstaking care taken to safeguard baptism, even if conversion was not accomplished. Consequently, there was a theological and discursive severing of baptism and conversion from one another.

The insistence on designating this community as "morisco" (non-Christian and nonSpanish) has therefore diminished the possibility of members of these communities sharing commonalities with other Spanish Christians (of non-Muslim background) religiously and in customs, especially practices that were not directly related to religious rites and ceremonies. Any possibility of a morisco having been a Christian cannot be narrated and thus is made invisible. Differentiating and bounding customs by prior religious identity does not allow for all Spaniards (whether of Muslim descent or not) to contribute to Spanish identity: Jews and Muslims were not constitutive of Spanish identity, then or now.

Therefore, the insistence on the metonymic use of the term "morisco," even though it is not the predominant term found in primary texts, diminishes the potential of Spanishness or Christianness for these communities. This ebbing was done by the proliferation of categories and the eventual bounded construction of these communities as "moriscos," and defining a community solely by a non-Christian (and prior) religious affiliation—yet, no longer "Moor"—and which would eventually be constructed into a racial/ethnic minority community, an other (othering and minoritization).

The sole use of the term "morisco" fails to capture the transitional and hybrid quality of language once it is placed on the page. The transitional nature of the language that accompanied processes of construction can be appreciated when the language itself is understood and seen as non-static. Then, through time the term "morisco" in the primary texts changed in usage and meaning. It was first related to "Moor" (as Muslim), then
became a non-static hybrid term, and then came to be defined solely as a person incapable of converting to Christianity, regardless of baptism and instruction. This latter point then became a weighty historiographical position: the historians' "morisco." "Morisco" ceases to be a useful category because it is from the start biased toward a particular view of this community as having never become Christian, regardless of baptism.

## Vincent Barletta's edited Memorandum

To demonstrate the difference between the texts' "morisco" and the historians' "morisco," here follows a presentation of a series of specific examples of the dissonance between primary and secondary texts, as it relates to this topic. The first examples come from A Memorandum for the President of the Royal Audiencia and Chancery Court of the City and Kingdom of Granada by Francisco Núñez Muley, translated and edited by Vincent Barletta. Núñez Muley's Memorandum was notable for its use of the term "native" to refer to the community from Granada, as well as being written on the eve of the second rebellion of the Alpujarras, before the internal displacement of Granadans.

Given the nuanced discursive use of terminology by Francisco Núñez Muley, it could reasonably be expected that the secondary exposition of the text be equally nuanced. Yet, the editor and translator used "morisco" as the preferred terminology to refer to this community from the moment of baptism (in the first generation).

The result of these mass conversions (which depended as much upon the active participation of constables as it did upon that of priests) was the formation of a large minority community of recent, and mostly unwilling, converts from Islam. These converts came to be referred to as cristianos nuevos de moros (New Christians from Islam) and, more popularly, as moriscos. ${ }^{843}$

Although Vincent Barletta italicizes the phrase used in the text "cristianos nuevos de moros," he opts for the more "popular" "morisco" over "new Christian" for what he considers its specificity. The explanation for this choice is found in a footnote of the edited text of the Memorandum where there is a reference to a "New Christian woman." The associated footnote states:

The term "New Christian" (cristiano nuevo) refers to Jewish and Muslim converts to Christianity and their descendants. It is a more general term

[^240]than "Morisco" (i.e., Muslim converts) and "Converso" (i.e., Jewish converts), and it of course has meaning only in relation to the term "Old Christian"
(cristiano viejo), or those with no Jewish or Muslim ancestry. ${ }^{844}$
The notion that the term "new Christian" only appears as the binary counterpart to "old Christian" is problematic in several ways. First, as seen in Chapter 3, although they at times appear together, they are not always together; they can appear independently of each other or with a different counterpart. ${ }^{845}$ Second, it misses the important shift (shown in Chapter 3) from "new Christian" to "morisco" as part of the processes of differentiation and othering. Finally, in the case of the specific text from Francisco Núñez Muley it misses that the use of the term "native" outnumbers the use of "morisco" or "new Christian," which is a very important rhetorical contribution from the text as discussed in Chapter $3 .{ }^{846}$ Furthermore, "new" was not yet static as "old" was. Thus, even if the phrase "new Christian" was a counterpart to "old Christian," the "new" still had transitional and non-static qualities which were eventually lost in the term "morisco."

## Barbara Fuchs

Not all researchers, especially those concerned with literary studies and semiotics, (dis)miss the importance of language and changes in language. Some, like Barbara Fuchs, are cognizant of the hybridity of the language and culture of Spain, as well as the sixteenth-century emerging construction of Spanish-national and imperial-identity. Yet, even though some scholars identify these meta-processes, some have missed the opportunity to enact the findings in the language they use to describe the communities. For example, Fuchs' use of the terms "Moorish," "Moor," "Morisco," etc. is inconsistent. Fuch's use of the terms "Moorish" and related "Moorishness" in English is least problematic, but the level of conflation of other terms is challenging. To put this into context, it is important first to present the aim of her project and then explain the difficulty with the terminology chosen:

Spanish attitudes towards Moors and the Moorish heritage underlie key cruxes in Spain's development as a nation, touching not only on the obvious

[^241]${ }^{846}$ See page 216-217, footnotes 701, 702, 703, 704.
question of religious assimilation vs. the racialization of minorities, but also on local vs. national cultures, the tension between centralizing monarchy and regional aristocracies, and the struggles between political exigency and religious policy. ${ }^{847}$

The book Exotic Nation is undoubtedly situated in the sixteenth century, yet, without a time or regional reference for the sentence above, it is difficult to ascertain the way Fuchs uses the terms "Moors" and "Moorish," and whether "Moorish" is being used as the English translation of "morisco" in the nominative or descriptive sense. Furthermore, throughout the book Fuchs seems to have made a choice to use the term "morisco"848 only rarely, especially in Spanish, but by doing so has created problematic phrases, such as "Christian Moors." 849

Barbara Fuch's project is important and offers a study on how the construction of Spanish identity in the sixteenth century was a rejection of Spain's hybrid identity and history and an attempt at eliminating its Moorishness, which, as is argued here, necessitated (re)inscription and the construction of difference and othering of particular communities of Christians. ${ }^{850}$ Yet, as in the analysis of the literary transition from maurophilia to maurophobia, Fuchs places a limit in reading for representations of the "Moor" and does not necessarily read for those of the "morisco." Said differently, the terms "Moor" and the "morisco" in the sixteenth century were not interchangeable and cannot be fully represented in one figure, even a literary one. Moreover, since Fuchs is focused on representations of the "Moor," these do not necessarily help to identify the "morisco" in the "new Christian."

Even though the texts Barbara Fuchs analyzes were written in the sixteenth century, they were dealing with characters (chivalric Moors) who no longer officially existed, or were from a bygone era, but who still may be (re)inscribed in those that did exist (the new Christian and morisco). Fuchs analyzes the Novela del Abencerraje y Jarifa (1560s) and writes,

Given the text's sympathetic depiction of cross-cultural contacts, critics have read Abindarráez's lament as an oblique reference to the suffering of

[^242]Spanish Jews and Moors, exiled or persecuted as New Christians. [...] The intense chivalric and homosocial ties between Christian and Moor adumbrate the novella's historical context of border conflict. They also contrast sharply with the situation of the Moriscos at the time of its publication, as the respite from legal persecution which they tenuously enjoyed began to seem increasingly fragile. ${ }^{851}$

Yet, technically (after 1492, 1501, and 1526) there were no suffering Spanish Jews or Moors, there were "moriscos," "conversos," or "new Christians," but not "Moors" or "Jews." By mostly equating "Moor" and "morisco," there is little room for the existence of "new Christians," or to allow for these being from the same, or part of the same, communities. Therefore, "new Christians" are invisible or not narrated, which may be significant in the analysis of the texts themselves. Barbara Fuchs goes on to criticize an analysis of El Abencerraje which indeed makes a distinction between "Moor" and "morisco," while adding a quotation from the very author she is commenting on.
[Claudio] Guillen refuses any connection between the idealized portrait of the Moor in the text and the historical reality of the Moriscos: "the exaltation of the Moorish knight, always a nobleman, was far from being incompatible with a profound scorn for the morisco, who was always plebeian. The enthusiastic praise of the gallant Moorish knight-who in the final analysis was not different from a Christian noble man-could only intensify everyone's impatience with the stubborn moriscos, who persisted in their faith, their ways, their otherness." Guillen here repeats in an uncritical fashion the vision of the Moriscos propounded by the state: they are unassimilable and undesirable. ${ }^{852}$

Fuchs is at once aware of the myth of the "inassimilable morisco" and blind to the hybridity of the term "morisco" and "new Christian" in the sixteenth century, by loosely equating "Moor" to "morisco." It is curious to note that in this text the Moor was a character of the past and a knight or noble; differently, the more contemporary morisco was a plebeian. Whereas Fuchs sees the Moor as still subversively representing the struggle of the "Moorish" within Spanish identity, Claudio Guillén sees a gulf between the Moor of the past and the morisco of the present. What Guillén is perhaps noting was that the Moor couldn't exist outside of the literary texts, given the forced/decreed baptisms, because the community that indeed existed when the texts were written was the subjugated (colonial) community of new Christians (so-called moriscos).

[^243]In the texts Barbara Fuchs analyzes, "Moor" is used at times, to mean "Muslim" and at other times to denote "morisco." In the plays, the moro is the chivalric Moor (Muslim knight), but in other texts, like that of Francisco Núñez Muley, the text would require "morisco," although it is known that the preferred term there was "native." Yet Fuchs does not distinguish between "moros" who were Muslims and "moros" who were "moriscos" (e.g. Christians) in the narrative of the texts.

As stated before, a limitation exists in the English-language about the connection of "Moor" and "Moorish" as noun and descriptor, versus the fact that "morisco" in the Spanish language can be used as both a noun and as a descriptor, but can only be translated to "Moorish" in the descriptive sense. Barbara Fuchs is further limited by not noticing that the hybrid use of the term "morisco" and the phrase "new Christian" are part of the very construction of Spanish identity she delineates in Exotic Nation. This is further complicated by the fact that in the literary tropes of the texts the characters were "Moors," perhaps behaving in a "morisco" way, but not baptized characters; they were Muslims.

The official project of erasing the Moors from Spain is countered by a genre that includes both material artifacts-the monumental Alhambra, but also myriad Mudéjar buildings-and texts, such as the Abencerraje or Núñez Muley's plea, that participate in their memorialization. As the frame of El Abencerraje argues, the proper commemoration of a Spanish past that includes many empresas generosas between Moors and Christians must necessarily involve an acknowledgment of Moors and their culture. This maurophile genre in itself become a lieu de mémoire, writing the Moors all over Spain, from the continuing syncretism of the built environment to the cultural and military struggles of the sixteenth century. ${ }^{853}$

The construction of new Christians and moriscos as other and their expulsions were part of the processes that aimed to erase the "Moors from Spain." These processes were a continual reaction to the ever-present hybrid self which was denied; the other, which was the same as the self but constructed as different, was excised.

As discussed in Chapter 2 with respect to the discourses of the "Black Legend," notwithstanding the (mis)use of the terms "moro" and "morisco," where Barbara Fuchs excels is in her clear presentation of how the construction of Spanish identity emerged as the sixteenth century progressed and was a reaction to an external construction of Spain primarily by the English, a construction which "attempt[ed] to render Spain biologically (if

[^244]not visibly) black" and that this was justified by the historical presence of Jews and Muslims which were also rendered "black." 854 The processes identified fit into the processes of construction Fuchs identifies. England's rendering was a construct since it is noted that in the peninsula skin color was not a distinguishing quality for Muslims or those descendants of Muslims: "Moors were not reliably identifiable in this way." 855

Instead, Spanish racial hysteria focused on covert cultural and religious practices...Absent physical manifestations, how could one tell if any given subject was free from Semitic or Moorish taint? This ambiguity suggests the possibility of assimilation, passing, and other challenges to the official rhetoric of essentialized difference. ${ }^{856}$

As agreed and proven in this project, like Barbara Fuchs, other historians agree that there was not a clear epidermic difference between Spaniards, whether descendants of Christians or Muslims. ${ }^{857}$ Therefore Barbara Fuchs disagrees with and quotes in a footnote the assertions by James H. Sweet that
[e]ven though the Muslims ranged in skin color from white to very dark brown, nearly all were distinguishable from white Christians by their physical appearance. ${ }^{858}$

Sweet makes this assertion because peninsular Muslims are understood to be "tawnycolored Muslims," "golden brown," or "yellowish brown," ${ }^{859}$ descriptions which may not be completely substantiated for Muslims or those of Muslim descent, or may be equally true of other groups in the peninsula, including old Christians, and terms as "white": all of these likely constructions. An unknown remains as to what Sweet means by the phrase "physical appearance" and whether it includes the manner of dress, or whether it is strictly about "skin color" (the epidermis). ${ }^{860}$

[^245]Given that difference between these Christian communities was not in the epidermis but rather more of a discursive construction, it is important to acknowledge the possibility that there were members of these communities, not necessarily termed "morisco," that were unremarkable because of their level of religious and socio-cultural assimilation, and who remained in Granada after 1571, or in the peninsula after 1609-14, as explored in the next sub-section. ${ }^{861}$ As Barbara Fuchs and others rightly note,
historiography has largely neglected the large class of assimilated
Moriscos...perhaps because they do not conform to the 'clash of cultures' model ${ }^{862}$
or because they were not part of the written discourse: they were not the problem. These may perhaps be the new Christians who have been erased or not narrated.

For some scholars, the use of the "clash" and even "convivencia" models after the decreed baptisms require a (re)inscription of the tri/bipartite matrix of study of the peninsula based on religious difference. What this means is that since there have been multiple religions in the peninsula for centuries, any mention of difference in practice attributed to religious heritage or otherness could only be understood as being a factual statement and reality of a de facto inheritable religious difference. ${ }^{863}$

## The exceptions

As noted before, baptism prior to 1492 or 1501 allowed for some baptized descendants of Muslims to be included in the category of "old Christian," and by consequence perhaps "Spanish." 864 Marriage to an old Christian could also help a new Christian attain old-Christian status. Similarly, in the Sistema de Castas there were ways to buy or prove one's lineage and receive a legal document (probanza) that would state one's purity or caste. ${ }^{865}$ Those who attained the status of old Christian were perhaps using the state and church's mechanisms of control to their advantage. Some probanzas were suspect. In the case of Francisco el Partal (1557), the prosecutor argued that

[^246]we would find that many of the newly converted of the Moors of the said city of Granada sought through all illicit ways and means to prove that they were old Christians and that their parents and grandparents had converted [before the general conversion]. ${ }^{866}$

This court case allows for the distinct possibility that difference was not always completely apparent. In addition to the specific court cases, there are other examples of people remaining in Granada after 1571 and in the peninsula after 1609-14. One such case was that of Juan de Albotodo, a Jesuit descendant of a Muslim, and the subject of several documents from 1573 and 1579. 867 The documents speak of a bequest to the Society of Jesus, but of further interest here is that de Albotodo had remained in Granada after the internal displacement of 1571. As noted before, those who achieved oldChristian status, by marriage or proved that their conversion was before the general conversion, may have been able to remain. ${ }^{868}$
[T]here were important exceptions, born of rank and privilege...[or] former Muslims who could prove that they had converted to Christianity before the generalized forced baptisms could claim the status of Old Christians. These were important exceptions to any racialist genealogy used against converts. ${ }^{869}$

As Trevor J. Dadson posits, there were also those who remained behind because other Christians safeguarded them. ${ }^{870}$ There were those who assimilated, culturally and religiously, and were indistinguishable from other Christians (Castilians), and for those reasons were not narrated and were invisible. These are challenges to historians who have bought into the discourses of the "Black Legend" and the constructed official discourse of "essentializing or racialist accounts of Morisco difference." ${ }^{871}$

[^247]Although the expulsions were real and affected many lives, the idea of a complete expulsion of all baptized descendants of Muslims is more of a construct than a reality. Some of those who remained were erased in the official historical record and therefore by historians who have not noticed their existence. Whereas Rodrigo de Zayas calls the expulsion genocide, implying the systematic and complete success, Trevor J. Dadson goes as far as to argue that "it may well be the case that the only part of the country where the expulsion was at all successful was Valencia." ${ }^{872}$ Given that Rodrigo de Zayas' work relies on Valencian documents, both positions may be true (only for Valencia). This gives credence to the idea that the "morisco problem" was not a peninsular problem but primarily a Valencian problem, which historians have incorrectly homogenized through metonymy.

Rodrigo de Zayas' Document XLV was concerned with the impact the decree of expulsion for Andalusia, the Kingdom of Granada, and Murcia would have
on the descendants of Moriscos who had been baptized prior to the general repression and who were not participants in the first rebellion of the Alpujarras. ${ }^{873}$

This is important because their baptism predated both rebellions in Granada (1499-1501 and 1568-1570). Beatas and others who had a vow of celibacy or chastity were also exempt from the expulsions. ${ }^{874}$ The fact that there was concern about moriscos in the Kingdom of Granada reminds the reader that not all were expelled in 1571, as was seen in the case of Juan de Albotodo. Furthermore, not only had such people converted at the right time, meaning that there was no possibility that their baptism was forced/decreed, they had assimilated into the broader old-Christian habits: "they are considered as old Christians in terms of their language, their costume and their religious practices..."875 In

[^248]this task, the onus on determining whether they would be expelled or not fell to the bishops. Philip charged the bishops in the following manner:

I have resolved that the Moriscos of this kind not be expelled, who the Bishops deem to be good and faithful Christians, and who had lived as such without ever keeping to the food, beverage, nor any other rite of the sect of Muhammad. ${ }^{876}$

At the risk of using the experience of one small sliver of the community of descendants of Muslim converts to say something about the whole, it is noted that there was a minority of this community that tried to elevate itself above suspicion. The main argument they used was that their conversion occurred before the forced conversions and that this could and should overcome any perception of their otherness.

To briefly summarize the analysis thus far: the Granadan documents show a preference for the phrases "new Christian" and "newly converted" to refer to the baptized Granadans, descendants of Muslims. There were various uses of the term "morisco" in the documents; the nominative use of the term "morisco" increased after the second rebellion of the Alpujarras, and outside of Granada (particularly Valencia), mostly within the context of the morisco affair. Therefore, the process of (re)construction of these communities as a community of religiously other was identified. Yet, historians prefer to use the term "morisco" regardless of the location or time-frame as a homogenizing term (metonymy) for the whole community, even though not all were moriscos. This retroactive use of the term is at best a post-expulsion lens and de facto perpetuates the (re)construction of this community as indelibly and always other, meaning non-Christian and non-Spanish.

### 4.2 Application of the approach

In the previous section, several examples emerged that show the disconnection between the primary texts' "morisco" and the historians' "morisco." It has been posited that this matters because the primary texts' "morisco" was part of a process of othering of communities of Christians to justify their ultimate discursive excising through expulsions;

[^249]that is, of groups constructed as non-Christian and non-Spanish. This section is a more in-depth presentation of this disconnect. It presents two books from which primary documents were analyzed and presented in Chapter 3: the Spanish edition of Rodrigo de Zayas' Los moriscos y el racismo de estado: Creación, persecución y deportación (14991612) and Antonio Garrido Aranda's Moriscos e Indios.

## Rodrigo de Zayas

Rodrigo de Zayas' Moriscos y el racismo de estado includes 64 primary documents (48 from the Archivo Holland and 16 from the Biblioteca Zayas). ${ }^{877}$ In Section 3.3 there was an introduction to these primary documents. That introduction supported the conclusion that "morisco" was a term better suited for after 1571 and outside of Granada, although it was a term still in transition. The following is an analysis of the language found in the documents and the language that de Zayas uses to describe the community of baptized descendants of Muslims.

The title of the book, which, like many others, sets up the idea that the subject matter was a specific, identifiable, discrete community, and subject of study. Furthermore, it starts from the position that moriscos were different and in this case considered nonChristian and non-Spanish, which is further reinforced by the idea of the "racism of the state" in the title. Rodrigo de Zayas is not egregious in his use of the term "morisco" as a homogenizing term; thus, serving as an illustration of the paradigm posited in this project-the opportunities missed for understanding further these communities and texts. This is not to question his conclusions, but to show how the conclusions can be strengthened or challenged based on the use of specific terminology.

Rodrigo de Zayas analyzes the term "morisco" to understand these communities as constructed as a community of racially other, similar to the stance taken here. The issue here is not whether these communities suffered prejudice, but whether these communities can be studied as Christian communities, and whether there was something relevant in the timing of when these communities came to be called "moriscos." And it is precisely in this realm that de Zayas is less clear in his presentation and is limited by using the term

[^250]"morisco." In a sense de Zayas can only see these communities as indeed having been solely other.

For example, in his Introduction, Rodrigo de Zayas "names" as "baptized moriscos" 878 the community that was ultimately deported—a phrase not found in the texts. Later, building on an argument for racism as the appropriate hermeneutical lens through which to study the sixteenth century, de Zayas conflates the possible racial othering of these communities with the religious othering that was also occurring:
we ought to ask ourselves with all seriousness...if the institutional racism is not purely and simply an old product of our Christian culture. The Jewish and Muslim victims of the Inquisition, the lay laws based on the purity of blood statutes (of religious origin) and the massive deportation of Spaniards of the Jewish and Muslim religions militate in favor of said interpretation. ${ }^{879}$

Although Rodrigo de Zayas' analysis gets at something important regarding the communities, it misses the nuance because of its lack of clarity regarding the distinctions between the various communities. This is an example of the various communities being distinguished by the tri/bipartite matrix; and this matrix not being the right paradigm for the various groups that were "victims of the Inquisition" and deported. After baptism, there were no longer three (religious) communities; there were, in fact, fewer religions, and more communities were constructed-this to prevent movement of some from these communities to old Christian ones. Whereas baptism should have led to the reduction of the number of religious categories, instead there was a proliferation of religious categories to close off to these communities the possibility of being truly "Christian." Furthermore, Jews and Muslims officially could not be "victims of the Inquisition"; only baptized descendants of Jews or Muslims could be. ${ }^{880}$ Although Jews were indeed deported in 1492, and Muslims who did not seek baptism were exiled between 1501 and the late 1520s; Christians were deported in 1609-1614, as noted by Trevor J. Dadson. ${ }^{881}$

[^251]Rodrigo de Zayas notices that something was changing in the treatment of these communities as the sixteenth century progressed; yet, the reliance on the term "morisco" obfuscates the discursive processes of othering. As key changes in this century, de Zayas notes, as Barbara Fuchs does as well, both a process of Spain's self-definition as a nation and the inability of these communities to truly become Christians.

In this context, the Spanish Inquisition officially adopted the fundamental concept for the future of the moriscos and the racism of the State: that of the "nation." That concept goes beyond the realm of the religious in order to increasingly enter the realm of lineage, not in the familial sense but the communal sense of the word. In that collective concept fit Moors, heretics from the Moors, apostates and also new Christians fully or partially assimilated to the orthodox norms of Spanish Catholicism. Between 1542 and 1609 something new is born, starting from the premise by which the morisco, through the mere fact of being morisco, cannot be a Christian of good faith. ${ }^{882}$

The above statement is factual in many ways. The Spanish Inquisition served as a mechanism of control of communities that were increasingly being othered. ${ }^{883}$ Furthermore, as is shown below, and as noted by Fuchs, this othering was part of the development of a Spanish national and imperial identity. ${ }^{884}$ There is agreement here that the referential term of "nation" also increased as the sixteenth century progressed. Finally, the understanding that the othering of these communities, no matter what their actual reality was, prevented them from becoming Christian and Spanish. Yet, these processes were not completed in one moment; there was a progression, and part of that progression was discursive and emphasized the difference between the terms/phrases "moros," "new Christians," and "moriscos." Again moros were not subject to the Inquisition, nor could moros herejes be; only the apostates and new Christians in this list were. ${ }^{885}$

[^252]There are other terminology issues in Rodrigo de Zayas' book. De Zayas, still relying on the term "morisco," refers to the communities as a "morisco minority," 886 "a morisco community," and the "morisco population." 887 In his Chapter 2, "The creation of the moriscos: the created ones," de Zayas acknowledges that these communities were referred to as "new Christians" in opposition to what they were indeed not, namely "old Christians." 888 He therefore argues that there was a process by which this community was created as a "morisco community." Yet, as shown here, the different terms or phrases actually matter.

For Rodrigo de Zayas the first step in creating the "morisco community" was baptism and thus changing status from mudéjar to morisco. Yet, as noted before, even with difficulties with the term "mudéjar," baptism did not immediately change mudéjares into moriscos; before arriving at the term "morisco" there were intermediate constructions of members of these communities as "new Christians" or "newly converted," as was the case with Jews a century earlier. De Zayas writes, "the Granadan mudéjares were being converted into moriscos. This phenomenon was entirely new and due to the forced baptisms." ${ }^{889}$ Given the analysis of the Granadan documents, as well as the de Zayas documents, not only is the use of the term "morisco" problematic in this case, so too is the use of the term "mudéjar" (albeit ameliorated by the addition of Granadan).

Rodrigo de Zayas' insistence on using the term "morisco," as a handle of sorts, continues to happen even though he recognizes that this was not the term used, or at least not in the sense that he is using it. De Zayas argues that Archbishop Jimenez de

[^253]Cisneros begun the construction of this community as moriscos, yet in the footnote clarifies that this was not the way the term was used. De Zayas writes,

The direct creator could almost be said the inventor of the moriscos-as would from then would be called the 'new Christians' FN _is perfectly identified: fray Francisco Jiménez de Cisneros.

In his own footnote 93 states: "In that moment debuts a new sense of the word 'morisco' but the word itself does not appear, for example... as a synonym of 'Moor.'"890 De Zayas correctly notes the cultural challenges experienced by the Granadans and other Muslims that had to be baptized. It is a colonial process, as he points out. Yet, it is not the "new Christian" that should be in quotations, but the "morisco" instead.

There are other examples of his problematic use of the term "morisco," which show how Rodrigo de Zayas missed opportunities to notice the nuanced changes in the use and meaning of language. At times de Zayas conflates morisco with Muslim, which has an a priori stance on the Christianity or not of this community. De Zayas is inconsistent even in presenting the logic of the Crown, that "if moriscos were Christian, and they were in virtue of their baptism, they ought to behave as such and without delay;" ${ }^{891}$ in contrast to the logic of the new Christians, whom he describes as "heirs to a great and powerful independent civilization, their own: al-Andalus." ${ }^{892}$ This (over)states the difference between the two communities and does not allow for a shared habitus between them. The way de Zayas used the term "morisco" in the above quotation is as a deficient Christian (suspect), not an outright Muslim.

[^254]A few pages later and referring to the decree of conversion or exile for Valencia, Aragón and Cataluña, Rodrigo de Zayas uses the term "morisco" as fully equated to "Moor" (as Muslim):

25 November [1525], a general decree of expulsion of the moriscos was signed by the king. All those from Valencia would have to abandon the kingdom by 31 December and those of Aragon and of Cataluña before 31 January 1526. ... The effect was immediate: dozens of thousands of moriscos requested baptism... ${ }^{893}$

In this text, he incorrectly conflates morisco with Muslim when in fact the language would have been either "Moors" or "Mudéjares." This is despite recognizing that baptism meant the abrogation of the status of mudéjar. ${ }^{894}$

Having noted some of the inconsistent uses of terminology in the narrative analysis of Rodrigo de Zayas' book, in the next few pages there is a presentation of the language actually found in the primary texts. As was the case with the expulsion-related documents, when compared to the Granadan documents the collections in de Zayas' book include a greater number of terms and phrases used to name this community or describe the customs of the community than just "morisco." Whereas in the Granadan documents the phrases "newly converted" and "new Christian" dominated and began to shift toward "morisco," in de Zayas' other terms and phrases can be found, such as, "gente," "nación," and "nuevos convertidos" (rather than "nuevamente"). The following table presents the tallies for the terms "morisco," "gente," and "nación," as well as other phrases which include the "new" or "newly" combinations. ${ }^{895}$

[^255]Table 4.1: Archivo Holland y Biblioteca Zayas

| Term/ Phrase | No. of times |
| :---: | :---: |
| Morisco | TOTAL 248 |
| Moros/ Moors | TOTAL 99 |
| Gente/ people | TOTAL 36 |
| Nación/ Nation | TOTAL 24 |
| nuevos convertidos/ new converts | 70 |
| cristianos nuevos/ nuevos cristianos new Christians | 38 |
| nuevamente convertidos/ newly converted | 20 |
| cristianos nuevos moriscos ${ }^{896}$ new morisco Christians | 5 |
| cristianos nuevos de los nuevamente convertidos de moros <br> new Christians of the newly converted of the Moors | 3 |
| convertidos de moro/ converted of the Moor(s) ${ }^{897}$ | 2 |
| moriscos nuevos convertidos newly converted moriscos | 1 |
| moros bautizados/ baptized Moors ${ }^{898}$ | 1 |
| cristianos nuevos convertidos new converted Christians | 1 |
| moriscos cristianos nuevos ${ }^{899}$ morisco new Christians | 1 |
| moriscos convertidos/ converted moriscos | 1 |
| TOTAL | 143 |

[^256]The term "morisco" is the leading term found in the documents from Rodrigo de Zayas' book (248 instances versus 203—without moro-for all other terms or phrases as seen above). Yet, based on the conclusions in Chapter 3, although the term "morisco" was taking a predominant place, it was not yet as overwhelming as "newly converted" or "new Christian" were in the other direction. Put differently, there was still flexibility or possibility for transition in the terminology and the shift toward morisco had not yet been completed. Whereas the ratio was one "morisco" for every 4.7 or 6.7 instances of "newly converted" or "new Christian" as described earlier, here the ratio is one "morisco" for every 0.8 instances of other terms or phrases. 900

This is a place where the approach devised and implemented here becomes helpful in finding more areas of discursive construction of particular communities as other or other areas of inquiry into these communities. If the assumption was that everything in these documents referred to a homogenous community of non-Christians and non-Spanish, the 203 references to the community that were different from "morisco" would go unnoticed, or become unimportant, or reinforce a "reality" of difference. Yet, by looking for all the ways in which this community was referred to, the processes of othering are unearthed, and can be placed into the wider context of some other historical shifts that were occurring in the sixteenth century. Attention to the terminology may, in fact, support and strengthen some of the arguments made by Rodrigo de Zayas and others, or challenge them.

An example on how attention to the terminology allows for new insight has to do with the terms "nación" and "gente." It has been asserted that the excision of a communities of Christians from the peninsula in 1609-14 was justified in part by excluding these communities from the emerging (constructed) idea of Spanish-national and -imperial identities. The broader context historians mention is that this fits in with the early modern rise of nation-states as well as empires. Until the conquest of the Nasrid Kingdom of Granada it is difficult to begin to think of Spain as a nation; especially since the various interests of the different kingdoms did not always work in consort with one another. It was perhaps the emerging empire which did more to delineate the nation in the discourse of other nations than did the internal reality of the peninsula, as discussed earlier with respect to the discourses of the "Black Legend."

[^257]Most of the documents analyzed generally refer to the various kingdoms by name: Granada, Valencia, Castilla, and so forth. This is perhaps more evident because these documents do not have to be self-referential in terms of "nationhood" since there are no other nations to be differentiated from. Therefore, given this context the fact that the baptized descendants of Muslims were named a "nación" or a "gente" becomes relevant: an other nation within: what so far has been called alien. Furthermore, in the Archivo Holland there is increasing mention and awareness of the idea of "España" and how this community did not fit into that idea or was a threat to it, not just because they were nonChristian, but also because they were non-Spanish. With the increased use of the terms "nación" and "gente," by association the term "morisco" increasingly gained both an ethnic and religious othering.

Given the earlier chronology of the Granadan documents, the term "nación" only appears five times, and two of these in the context of "cristianos de nación" (Christians by birth; a different usage). ${ }^{901}$ Yet in the Archivo Holland there are 24 instances of the term "nación" and 36 instances of the community being called "gente."902 All of the terms, not just "morisco," contributed to the construction of these communities as other and created a greater distance between these communities and the "Christian" and the "Spanish" ones. The othering of these communities was part of the defining of the self as España (Spain). ${ }^{903}$ In mentioning Spain, usually in relation to the dual salvation of those people and Spain, ${ }^{904}$ the impetus for the success of the full conversion of these communities was the idea that Spain was being punished for their infidelity, ${ }^{905}$ as well as the idea that they had succeeded in converting in the past. ${ }^{906}$

[^258]There is a curious phrase which includes both "morisco" and "España:" "moriscos de España" ${ }^{907}$ and occurs seven times in four documents. Here two meanings may be proposed: first, a sense of ownership of this "unique" community or problem (since in Valencia it is the "morisco problem") within the emerging national consciousness, while keeping the communities distinct within its borders (an alien within). Second, this may be an example of the beginning of a full (re)association of morisco with moro, both in the religious sense (Muslim, as was used in Spain) and in the ethnic sense (Maurus from Mauretania, from Roman times), which may be correlated with the increased trans-Atlantic sub-Saharan African slave trade. ${ }^{908}$ As mentioned before with regards to the Sistema de Castas, as it ethnically or racially relates to "Moor" the term "morisco" had both connotations, and eventually lost some of its religious connotations.

If the progression of terminology is taken seriously, there is the possibility for other phrases or terms to coexist and be studied. For example, in the Granadan documents the phrases "newly converted" and "new Christian" transition toward "morisco." Another difference in the Rodrigo de Zayas' documents was an additional subtle language shift from the adjectival "nuevamente convertidos" ("newly converted") to the nominative "nuevos convertidos" ("the newly converted"), which is not easily differentiated in English. In the Archivo Holland there are four documents that use "nuevamente convertidos," as well as one document in the Biblioteca Zayas, for a total of 20 instances of the phrase. ${ }^{909}$ Seventeen of the instances occur prior to 1557 and the other three instances after 1600. Similarly, there are 14 documents in the Archivo Holland which together include 70 instances of the phrase "nuevos convertidos." ${ }^{210}$ All of these occurrences were after 1582 and 19 of them are from Document XL from 1604-09. This seems to be both a halting of the progress toward "morisco" and toward "old Christian."

This phraseology shift loses its nuance when translated into English, because the tendency would be to equally translate "nuevamente" and "nuevos" as "newly" because of

[^259]the past participle "convertidos." The shift identified is one going from a temporal sense of "new" or "newly" which presumably were transitional terms, meaning that eventually their conversion would not be deemed recent, to a nominative term as part of a new category of converts and Christians, those that were "new" regardless of how many generations they had been Christians, and could not reach "time immemorial": now a static and nontransitional term This is similar to what has been noted regarding the Sistema de Castas across the Atlantic where the theoretical progression toward white after three or four generations was continually retarded, especially for those having any African ancestry. ${ }^{911}$ Both of these are examples of the proliferation of categories that helped to make religious otherness indelible: a racialist turn.

## Use of Moor and Reverting to Moor (as related to the colonial body)

Eight documents of the Archivo Holland use the term "moro" (60 instances.) ${ }^{912}$ This is also the case for 10 of the documents in the Biblioteca Zayas ( 39 instances. $)^{913}$ As with the Granadan documents, in these documents the use of "moro" was primarily equated to "Muslim," such as the religion prior to baptism. ${ }^{914}$ Other instances appear to have to do with the newly converted living like moros ${ }^{915}$ or doing things like moros-"like" but not "equal to." The usages are very similar to those of the Granadan documents. Document XL has a curious phrase, not found elsewhere, of "moros bautizados."916

In the Biblioteca Zayas, 20 instances of the term "moro" in the first five documents can all be equated to "Muslim." Yet, in Documents 8 and 9 from 1705 and c. 1600 respectively there is confusion or conflation of the term "moro" with "morisco." Both documents were referring to events in Granada around the second rebellion of the Alpujarras. Document 8 tells of the number of "moros" that were to go from the Albaícin to

[^260]incite the rebellion: "quinientos Moros sueltos," "dos mil moros de las Alpujarras," "los quinientos Moros," "los Moros del Albaizim," "tres mil moros," "quinientos moros," "el número de Moros," "dos mil moros," and two other references to single "moros."917 Whereas the uprising and rebellion was of baptized Granadans, by the time this document surfaces (1705) they were no longer moriscos, but fully moros.

In Document 8 there were also four instances of the term "morisco:" "levantamiento de los Moriscos" (uprising of the Moriscos), "dieron señal los Moriscos de su dañada intención" (the Moriscos signaled their bad intention), "moriscos aljamiados," and "Morisco principal" (Morisco leader). The phrase "moriscos aljamiados" is important here because it refers to moriscos who could speak Castilian Spanish and could trick the cristianos (perhaps by passing—another example of visible difference being constructed). ${ }^{918}$ Second, Biblioteca Zayas Document 9 was written by Luis del Mármol Carvajal (c.1600) although it references the time of the second rebellion of the Alpujarras. The document referred to a rivalry between two groups: those of the albaicin were moros and the others were moriscos. As was mentioned earlier, in the Granadan documents, it seems that at times the term "morisco" was used to refer to only part of the communities; here, it seems that the community was morisco and that the part that rebelled were the moros. This may be a significant shift in language, reverting to "moros" from "moriscos.".

In the apologetic literature of the expulsion there were some instances where the morisco made a full transition back to moro. No longer was the morisco or new Christian behaving like a moro-they actually were moros. Put differently, in texts, moriscos were made back into moros so that the expulsion could be the final victory of the Reconquista; the expulsion was "the end of Spain's subjugation to Muslim tyranny,"919 however absurd that may have been given that the communities' descendants of Muslims were colonized communities. For example, as Lucas A. Marchante-Aragón notes, Philip’s legacy was the expulsion of this Christian community as the culmination of the Reconquista and as a triumph of the gothic in the Spanish:

[^261]cantando en diferente romance, hazían relación de como su Magestad, siendo otro Pelayo, con esta expulsión restauró de los moros segunda vez a España. ${ }^{920}$

## Moriego and Morisma ${ }^{921}$

In addition to the use of the term "morisco" in the Archivo Holland and the Biblioteca Zayas, other cognates are also used in the texts. In particular, there are seven examples of the use of the terms "moriego" and "morisma" found in three documents. ${ }^{922}$ In Archivo Holland Document XXXIII, from 1598, the language and costume of the community was referred to as "lengua y trage moriego." ${ }^{223}$ Clearly the use here was the same as the descriptive (and less problematic) use of the term "morisco." Similarly, in Document XXXVII, from 1600, the use of the term "moriego" was in the descriptive phrase "vestido moriego."924

The term "morisma" had a different, and more negative, connotation. In Document XLII, from 1600, the term "morisma" referred specifically to the retention of Muslimness or put differently religious Moorishness. Both examples were followed by the expectation that changing external practices would lead them to be "Christians like other Christians." Two of the occurrences read as follows:

It is also said that many of them know to read and write Arabic, something that helps them much in conserving their Morisma. A great thing it will without doubt be to remove any external signs of moros, and make them, since they are like us Christians in baptism, to understand that they ought to conform in everything else with the old Christians, in costume and dress, in speaking and writing, common foods, and everything that would be good and Christian customs. ${ }^{925}$

[^262]And because everything that is a barbarous custom and use helps much in keeping them in the fanaticism and memory of their false law, and on the contrary, habituating them to our Christian usage and political treatment, they will come to be domesticated and to forget their morisma. It will be convenient that the Lord Bishops exhort the leaders of these, since they are baptized and children of the holy Church that they conform to everything that is good and licit with the old Christians: dress, language, foods, and drink wine moderately, etc., and that they take pride in presenting themselves as Christians in everything... ${ }^{926}$

As discussed in relation to the Archivo Holland in Rodrigo de Zayas' work, these last terms ("morisma" and "moriego") co-exist in the same documents with other references to the community as "moriscos" or "new Christians." Although there are fewer of these additional descriptive terms than "morisco," it is important to note that there were alternate ways of describing the communities and their practices that the sole use of "morisco" would not indicate.

The language found in the Rodrigo de Zayas tome confirms the increased use of "morisco." Yet the language usage and meaning had not made the full transition to the eventual static meaning and usage, including historiographically. The preponderance of the term "morisco" is found in a multiplicity of terms and phrases. The very array of terminology discursively helped to justify the expulsions, and was part of the othering processes, because the one term the community would not be called was "old Christian" let alone "Christian"; similarly, it could not be Spanish as seen with the cementing of the communities as an alien nation within its borders.

## Antonio Garrido Aranda

As has been noted, some of the primary documents analyzed in Chapter 3 are included in Antonio Garrido Aranda's book Moriscos e Indios: Precedentes Hispánicos de la Evangelización en México, first published in 1980 with a second edition appearing in

[^263]2013. ${ }^{927}$ The analysis of the primary texts is fully included in Chapter 3 and in Appendices 1 and 2. ${ }^{928}$ The purpose here is to contrast the terminology used in the primary texts with the terminology used in the analysis of the secondary texts. Since the primary texts refer to Granada, they primarily include the phrases "newly converted" or "new Christian" and not the term "morisco."

As Antonio Garrido Aranda's book title implies, he was attempting to compare the contemporaneous evangelization by the Spanish Church of communities on two sides of the Atlantic. ${ }^{929} \mathrm{In}$ its aim at comparison the book is successful, especially in raising questions about the usefulness and limitations of the trans-Atlantic assessment. Garrido Aranda remains one of the few historians that has endeavored to make this particular trans-Atlantic appraisal, yet he has done so in the more typical east to west orientation.

Similar to Rodrigo de Zayas, Antonio Garrido Aranda's analysis of the documents does not focus on or acknowledge the subtleties in the usage or prevalence of the phrases and term "new Christian" or "newly converted" and "morisco." Therefore, by choosing "morisco" as the term to describe the community, which starts from a de facto lens of difference between moriscos and Spaniards—on the same plane of difference as indios (Amerindians) and Spaniards, or ethnic rather than religious difference-Garrido Aranda tacitly accepts, and erases, the processes of othering and construction of difference identified in the language analysis in Chapter 3. ${ }^{930}$ Put differently, based on the previous language analysis, the contrast of moriscos to Amerindians confuses religious, racial and ethnic categories (other steps in the meta-narrative proposed), a confusion or conflation which had not yet been completed in the sixteenth century and should not be assumed or taken for granted. The point here is that it was a discursive strategy of otherness to

[^264]include in lists the racially other with those who were religiously other and that a distinction between the two had not always been made (or understood), or had not been completed. ${ }^{931}$

As groups of people both Amerindians and the so-called moriscos were colonial subjects of imperial Spain. Yet the categories of "indios" and "moriscos" were not parallel to each other, either religiously, racially, or ethnically. Although both communities were evangelized contemporaneously, they were not other to Spanish or old Christian in the same ways. Even though the categories were not analogous, Antonio Garrido Aranda uses the phrase "moriscos e indios" in the analysis whenever referring to events or strategies (mostly to do with strategies of evangelization) that were applicable to both communities, or worthy of comparison or contrast. ${ }^{932}$

Antonio Garrido Aranda has numerous ways of referring to the Granadan Muslim community prior to the forced baptisms and to the Christian community descendant of Muslims, but he does so primarily using the terms "moriscos," and sometimes "mudéjares," "neoconversos de moros," and "minoría morisca." ${ }^{333}$ As is the case with previous examples, the descriptive use of the term "morisco" as Moorish is less problematic in Garrido Aranda's book. The phrase "neoconversos de moros" is comparable to "nuevamente convertidos de moros" but technically was not a phrase used in the primary documents. Yet, whenever Garrido Aranda directly quotes a primary document, the correct phraseology is used as found in the documents. ${ }^{934}$ For example, he refers to a manual of instruction for the conversion of Amerindians and the proposed legislation to "restrict the movement and lodging for Moors, Jews, heretics and newly converted to the

[^265]faith" and shows this to be the phraseology used in the quoted 1501 text. ${ }^{935}$ Yet later, in quoting and analyzing a travel restriction from 1522, which uses the phrase "newly converted of the Moors," Garrido Aranda substitutes "moriscos."

En 1522 el Emperador se refería, en su afán de controlar el paso de los viajeros, a los "nuevamente convertidos de moros". Fue la primera vez que se nombró explícitamente a los moriscos, produciéndose un desplazamiento en las preocupaciones estatales sobre los judíos conversos. ${ }^{936}$

Continuing with examples of restrictions or anxieties around travelers, on the very next page Garrido Aranda includes three quotations that use the phrase "nuevamente convertidos."937 In a new chapter included in the second edition, Garrido Aranda completes the conflation of "nuevamente convertidos" to non-Christian in speaking about Archbishop Cisnero's "conversion" triumph:

Therefore, [Jimenez de] Cisneros acted as a leader of the ecclesial-political apparatus rooted in tradition and opposed to the lay conception of the Modern State; with that, the triumph of the old Christians over the newly converted (crypto-Jews and moriscos).

In parenthetically including "crypto-Jews and moriscos" as the definition of "nuevamente convertidos," Garrido Aranda allows for only one expression or possibility of and for the

[^266]community, as non-Christian. ${ }^{938}$ Both Garrido Aranda and Rodrigo de Zayas identify the creation of the moriscos as occurring at the hands of Archbishop Jimenez de Cisneros. ${ }^{939}$ Yet, the forced baptisms initially created new Christians and newly converted not moriscos. "Morisco" was not yet, even textually, metonymy.

Antonio Garrido Aranda's overwhelming use of the term "morisco," given the analysis in Chapter 3, comes into play when trying to understand the use of phrases such as "minoría morisca," "moriscos integrados," and "moriscos encubiertos."940 In the last two examples, only one instance of each, moriscos could be integrated or hidden, yet integrated (assimilated or acculturated) to what or hidden from what? Similarly, the phrase "minoría morisca" can be interpreted in multiple ways: Moorish minority or minority of the moriscos. Does this mean that only part of the community of converts were indeed moriscos, or was the whole community a Moorish minority different from the Spanish majority? This illustrates the concern that one of the problems with using the term "morisco" before the expulsions, or for Granada, or for the whole community, is that it cannot account for those members of the communities that were not included in the written historical record, who were "passing" (who were not narrated) and for whom there was in many ways a greater sense of mistrust and anxiety for the rest of Spanish society; the very Spanish (Castilian) society that aimed to exclude them from the emerging constructed Spanish identity. As concluded before, "morisco" was not metonymy.

In a similar way, given the examples regarding the use of the term "mudéjar" found in Chapter 3, Antonio Garrido Aranda's use of "mudéjar" is problematic. Although "mudéjar" is the general academic term for "Muslims living under Christian rule," and Granadan Muslims (formerly Nasrids) lived under Christian rule for the better part of a decade, as seen in Chapter 3, from within Granada the term "mudéjar" was predominantly used to refer to Muslims under long-time Christian rule elsewhere, which long predated 1492. For Garrido Aranda, as for others, it is convenient to use "mudéjar" as a prior

[^267]counterpart to "morisco," which is used after the forced baptisms. ${ }^{941}$ The term "mudéjar" substitutes for Nasrid/Muslim/Moro after $1492 .{ }^{942}$ Yet, there are occasions in which he uses the terms "mudéjar" and "morisco" interchangeably: "The mudéjar society was much less uniform. There were moriscos descendants of Africans, others from the north of Africa, from Aragon, etc." ${ }^{43}$ The implication here is that "mudéjar" and "morisco" were synonymous; therefore moriscos were Muslims. Yet, the term "mudéjar" only appears six times in the primary texts included in the volume. ${ }^{944}$

Identifying a meta-process is a fraught historiographical endeavor, especially given the distance the theoretical approach can have from the lived lives of the persons and communities under study. Yet, in this project, a multiplicity of lenses has been used to elucidate some long-term processes that helped discursively to construct certain communities of Christians as suspect or alien (non-Christian and non-Spanish), in order to justify discursively the expulsions of Christians, descendants of Muslims from the peninsula in 1609-1614. In positing a series of steps for these processes the reinforced theory is that these processes were not fully completed in the peninsula or at the time of the expulsions, something identified by broadening the methodological lens geographically and chronologically, across the Atlantic, beyond 1609-14, and into historiography. In the sixteenth century the term "morisco" was not co-terminus with the prhases "new Christian" or "newly converted," nor a useful historiographical metonymy. The historical morisco and the historians' eternal morisco are not the same. There remains, then, one more area where aspects of the processes of othering can also be discerned: the theological.

[^268]
### 4.3 Baptism, Conversion, and Expulsion

There are repercussions that result from some historians' acceptance that that the baptized descendants of Muslims were wholly non-Christian: the seemingly monological construction and justification behind the expulsions of 1609-1614. First, there cannot be an analysis of these communities as Christian communities and thus the "assimilated" or "acculturated" portion of the communities is erased and not narrated: made invisible or completely absorbed by "morisco." Second, by assuming that the exiled persons were non-Christians erases both the difference in meaning of "newly converted" and "new Christian" from "morisco," as well as the textual theological gymnastics that had to be done to "safeguard" baptism by dissociating it from conversion, infidelity, heresy, and apostasy.

It is reasonable to assert that any generalized statement regarding the communities of baptized descendants of Muslims will eventually fall short from the all-encompassing narrative it purports. Historians can no longer make any statement that can speak to the whole of a historical context or experience. By paying attention to the referential language, beyond "morisco," used for these communities some gaps in the homogenizing narrative were found. This is true both as regards the ethnic or racial othering as well as the religious othering of the communities. Yet, finding the non-remarkable new Christian becomes a challenge. A challenge because it seems to have been lumped into morisco, or it was not included in the text at all because it was a living challenge or exception to the polemical arguments being used against the whole community. One way of recovering members of these communities may be precisely in paying closer attention to the changes in language usage and meaning in the primary texts. As concluded in Chapter 3, the fact that the term "morisco" was referring to only part of the community and not the whole could be a useful starting point for new avenues of research.

Ultimately, whether acknowledged or not, the decreed baptisms changed the matrix of interaction between various communities and its members. The new matrix of interaction had contradictory expectations, and these contrary expectations in the end had the effect of controlling and limiting progress and inclusion of descendants of Muslims in the emerging Spanish identity and into Christianity. Some of the contrary expectations had to do with the type of otherness different communities were to each other; how to simultaneously maintain control and distance of communities; and how to safeguard the basic theological position and meaning of baptism.

As noted before, there were various arguments regarding the benefit of mixed communities, of new and old Christians, but most of the evidence suggests that many communities were not mixed along those lines. A stance on whether the communities were generally mixed (or differentiated) or not may dictate how one reads the following passage:
> ...because the catholics that live among these Apostates, although they keep the faith, grow increasingly cold dealing always with the Moriscos, and continually seeing how their errors are allowed and not punished.... the ordinances of the Church regarding this danger that is too much communication like this between the catholics and the heretics, like these [added word] are and apostates. ${ }^{945}$

If the historiographical view is that the communities were not mixed, it may be clear that there were some in the community who were "catholic" (orthodox), and who noticed that those who were not adhering to the faith were not being punished for it, and because they had contact and communication with that segment of the community (the moriscos or herejes), they could become tepid in their own practice or belief. The lack of enforcement made heresy or apostasy contagious. On the other hand, if the historiographical sense is that old and new Christians lived in the same communities, the negative view of descendants of former Muslims would dictate that "catholics" be equated with old Christians, and that the apóstatas and herejes were the moriscos. Therefore, the presence of moriscos, apostates, and heretics in the community alongside old Christians was dangerous for those who were seeing the poor example (old or new Christians, alike). Therefore, removing the metonymic understanding of the terms and adding the transitional, non-static and hybrid nature of the language, could expand the understanding of the various communities and their interactions with each other.

Throughout the analysis of the primary documents the phrases "newly converted" and "new Christian" and similar phrases have been lumped together. Yet, the two phrases have very distinct connotations and should be addressed in relation to their respective (dis)connections to baptism and/or conversion. At its most basic level the phrase "new Christian" was a designation with the temporal and descriptive "new" having a non-static

[^269]quality, but Christian nonetheless; and the phrase "newly converted" also conveyed a transitional state in both senses given the adverb and past participle. It is argued here that the static nature of Christian conflicted with the non-static nature of convert, albeit both being completed by "new" or "newly." Both "new Christian" and "newly converted" were categories and designations gained after the decreed baptisms, and eventually for baptized descendants of Muslims in subsequent generations. Yet, what is the relationship of "new Christian" to "newly converted"? Is there a consequential difference? Moreover, how were the decreed baptisms separated from conversion and from issues of infidelity, heresy, and apostasy?

## Forced Baptisms ${ }^{946}$

The longstanding historical and theological views on decreed or "forced" baptism, as presented in Chapter 1, informed many of the sixteenth-century arguments in favor of the validity of the baptisms of Muslims. In order not to diminish the indelibility of baptism, theologians had to dismiss the arguments that characterized the baptisms as invalid, since they were a result of a direct or indirect threat of force. The theological arguments not only protected baptism, but, as a mechanism of control, the theological arguments kept these communities within the jurisdiction of the church.

Document XL of the Archivo Holland ably summarizes the position taken by the Spanish Church: consent in the rite, regardless of the reasons to seek baptism, was tantamount to accepting the contract to live like a Christian. And, after baptism, the mechanism of control to make them behave (and believe) like Christians was the Inquisition.

It is the judgment of all theologians that whether by force, or fear, or threats, one consents to be baptized, that one remains obliged to keep the Christian faith, and rightly is counted by the church among its faithful because by divine law consent is sufficient, and that being so, it is impossible for a man to start a new life and renounce the previous one without the consent of his will. ${ }^{947}$

[^270]The above statement diminishes the reasons for which Jews or Muslims sought baptism, whether fear or the threat of death or exile, and made consent in the rite the most important element—a longstanding theological stance. ${ }^{948}$ Furthermore, as is stated below, for the waters of baptism to prevail, consent in the rite did not require the full will of the person.

According [to Bleda] to St. Thomas, St. Bonaventure and other important authors, who feel that the lack of disposition of the will does not impede the impression of the character of baptism, with the existence of some will to receive the sacrament. ${ }^{949}$

To further the argument that force leading to baptism did not make the baptism invalid, the text continued with a theological and philosophical distinction between "manners of force and violence": absolute force versus conditional force. ${ }^{950}$ It is the latter, conditional violence, that leaves room for consent in the rite. ${ }^{951}$ Although for many in the
alguna manera, y así fueron realmente baptizados y quedaron obligados a guardar las leyes de la Iglesia, cuanto más que de las veynte partes de los Moriscos que oy viven, las diez y nueve han rescibido el bautismo siendo niños." ("And it not sufficient excuse to say that they were baptized by force during the comunero time.... But many of those who received it by force consented in some way, and were thus truly baptized and were obliged to keep the laws of the Church, even more so since of the twenty parts of Moriscos who live now, nineteen parts were baptized as children.") See also, 438 "Presupuesto esto, es de presumir, que los moros de la corona de Aragón que primero professaron la fe, lo hizieron de su voluntad aunque precediessen amenazas; lo cual se confirma con que quando fueron baptizados, los sacerdotes les preguntaron: quieres ser baptizado? y ellos respondían: sí, quiero! que es la misma santa y antigua forma y tradición de la iglesia. De donde se colige y convence que hubo en ellos voluntad requerida para que la iglesia les administrases el baptismo." ("Presupposing this, it can be presumed, that the moros of the Crown of Aragon that first professed the Faith, they did so out of their own will even though it was preceded by threats; this can be confirmed given that when they were baptized the priests asked them: do you want to be baptized? And they responded: yes, I do! which is the same holy and ancient form and tradition of the church. From where it is confirmed and convinced that there was in them the required will in order for the church to administer baptism to them.")
${ }^{948}$ In 1391 some Jews sought baptism because of the threat of violence; in 1492, some Jews sought baptism because of the threat of exile; in 1522 some Muslims in areas of Valencia sought baptism because of the threat of violence from the Comuneros (on the threats from the Comuneros see also, 433-436, 441); in 1526 Muslims sought baptism because of the threat of exile. See Section 1.1.

949 Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Document XL, 438: "Alega [Bleda] a Santo Tomás, San Buena Ventura y otros graves autores, los quales dize que sienten que la indisposición de la voluntad no impide la impressión del carácter del baptismo, con que aya alguna voluntad de rescibir el sacramento; como el que por miedo de la muerte, o otros tormentos, se baptiza." The text continues, "Si ha tenido fe y voluntad, o no, porque aunque en él no aya avido voluntad meritoria, huvo voluntad y el consentimiento necesario." ("If there was Faith and will, or not, because even if in him there was no worthy will, there was the will and necessary consent.")

950 Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Document XL, 439: "Que según buena theología y philosophía dos maneras ay de fuerça y violencia; una precisa y absoluta, y otra condicional." ("According to good theology and philosophy there are two manners of force and violence; one that is precise and absolute, and the other conditional.")
${ }^{951}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Document XL, 439: "La otra fuerça es condicional quando se pone algo en voluntad del que la padece; no que se baptize quiera o no quiera, sino que elija
fifteenth or sixteenth century, or even today, the choice between death or baptism (death and life), may not be considered a choice, without the theological consensus that consent in the rite was all that was necessary, other theological arguments would fall apart. ${ }^{952}$ In short, "and since taking a vow is done freely, but following it afterwards obligatory, likewise it is in matters of the faith before professing it, and after."953 Baptism in this sense became a contract. ${ }^{954}$

It is only by problematizing the different uses of the term "morisco" that other nuanced uses of other terms come into relief. One such area is the notion that Muslims in the peninsula were thought to be able to become Christians through baptism, yet ultimately were deemed unable to convert despite their baptism. This latter point is what is termed below as the process of the dissociation of baptism from conversion (a Christian way of life).

The presence of a discursive justification or explanation of the validity of "forced" baptism should not be taken as proof that all baptisms were sought solely as a solution to exile or death. Instead, it might mean that some (which are unremarked upon or not narrated or occurred before the decrees) were undertaken because of a desire to change from one religion to another. In short, care must be taken to not make this into a

[^271]954 Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Document XL, 441.
monological or essentialist narrative. ${ }^{955}$ Put differently, only part of the community may have been justifying their lack of full adherence to Christianity to the manner of the baptisms at the time of the general imposition. Furthermore, this argument would diminish as the number of generations increased since the decreed baptisms. Many of the arguments presented in Document XL were to refute the arguments used by members of the communities of new Christians to justify their (perceived) religious deficiencies, or by the church to show how the lack of conversion was not a failure of baptism but a result of the nature of the community-a nature which made them uniquely other, unable to convert, and which could not be overcome. As time progressed, the concern was no longer with the decreed (forced) baptisms, but with conversion.

Document XL is emblematic of three of the aims of these polemical narratives and builds the argument at various levels. First, it lists the examples that show that this community was infidel, heretic, and apostate: such as, observing Ramadan, not eating pork or drinking wine, etc. (the lists also functioned as tropes). Second, it refutes the arguments that the community itself uses to justify their lack of full adherence to Christianity, such as forced baptisms and lack of instruction. Finally, it shows how the community cannot be Christian and did not convert, at the same time as it safeguards the validity of baptism and keeps the community under the control of the Inquisition.

Baptism in the minds of some was the clear and tangible way to control a community, by making the waters of baptism the initial moment of acculturation to Spanish (Castilian) ways. In addition to ensuring the validity of the baptism, they were ensuring that monitoring the behavior of this population was possible because they were indeed Christians. The dual monitoring of the State and the Church, which as Muslims was only the State. So not only was there an expectation that they would behave like other Christians (old and Castilian) because of their baptism, in fact their baptism required them to do so. The coercive nature of their baptisms is summarized in the following passage:

[^272]It is convenient that Your Majesty reprimand them with other penal laws that can curb the great impudence they have, and do what being a Christian compels, since they are baptized, and therefore they are compelled to follow that which the other faithful of our mother church follow and profess. ${ }^{956}$

## Infieles, Herejes, Apóstatas

Given the theological stance that the baptisms of Muslims were valid and even more so that of their descendants, scrutiny of the manner of Christianity of the baptized Muslims and their baptized descendants came under the purview of the Inquisition. Jews and Muslims were not subject to the Inquisition; the "newly converted of the Moors" were. The Inquisition was one of a myriad of mechanisms of control used to suppress this colonized community. The primary concern of the Inquisition was heresy and apostasy; yet, the texts also refer to issues of "infidelity."

There were lists of items that fell under the categories of heresy and/or apostasy. On the other hand, "infidelity" was a much more difficult thing to manage or ascertain, either because the "infidel" (non-faithful) had been historically thought of as a nonChristian, or because "infidelity" could be a sign of heterodoxy, or because "infidelity" could be a catch-all category that proved that this community was indeed other rather than being constructed as such. In short, although the "infieles" were the subject of many texts, they were not necessarily subject to the Inquisition. ${ }^{957}$ As seen earlier, Deborah Root sees a transition from infiel to heretic; a transition which was a technical consequence of baptism. ${ }^{958}$ One version of the infidelity accusation would have required the conclusion that the new Christians were not Christians, but in fact Muslims who were the "infiel," but to concede this fully was to acknowledge that the baptism wasn't valid and that they were not subject to the Inquisition, two consequences the State and the Church were not willing

[^273]to allow. Therefore, the way to do both was through the nominalization and proliferation of categories, even if these categories were of suspect Christians and alien Spaniards.

In Document XL, the term "infieles" at times was used to mean "apóstata" or "hereje." 959 For example in the text it reads,

That in the beginning of this treatise it was important to prove that the new converts, living as they did, should be thought of as infidels, and that they have returned to their first sect. ${ }^{960}$

The newly converted should be understood as infieles because they returned to their "first sect." Therefore the term "infieles" was equated in this case to the term "aspóstata." In Document XLII the malady of "infidelidad" was because although generations had passed since they had been baptized, there had been a failure of conversion from the beginning. ${ }^{961}$

So, although infidelity was not technically an issue for the Inquisition, the (inter)relationship between heresy, apostasy and infidelidad in the discourse can be understood as follows:

These reasons that have been offered to them in order to prove that the new Christians of the Kingdom of Valencia, and perhaps from the Kingdom of Aragón, are manifest infidels, and their heresy is Apostasy. ${ }^{962}$

They were infidels whose heresy was apostasy. Ultimately, they were a particular kind of Muslim, suspect and subject to the Inquisition.

[^274]
## Matters of the heart ${ }^{963}$

Although "infidelidad" as related to "infidel" was a clearer description than others, the accusation of "infidelidad" was complicated because it was an accusation about the interior belief of a person. It meant that no matter how much they properly practiced Christianity on the outside and were policed on their practices, they were considered to be Muslims on the inside. ${ }^{964}$ So this was yet another way of preventing movement and progression toward real Christian identity, let alone being a "good and faithful Christian." It was their hearts and souls that made them heretics or apostates and therefore must be policed. This was another step in the process of somatization of religious otherness, that made belief indelible and inheritable. ${ }^{965}$

Different from heresy or apostasy which required an act or pronouncement which was then used as evidence to substantiate an accusation, "infidelidad" could not be proven in the same way. Fidelity could be pretended; infidelity could be dissimulated or hidden. Moving beyond heresy and/or apostasy to infidelity was another necessary step in constructing this community as other and preventing it from becoming old Christian or (Castilian) Spanish. The impossibility of conversion (the unattainable metanoia) had to do with adding more and more elements between the other and old Christians, such as was also shown in the Sistema de Castas. There people with any African blood at all could never attain whiteness or Spanishness; here new layers and barriers of (constructed) difference prevented them from becoming old Christian or (Castilian) Spanish.

Like purity of blood statutes, this step was another mechanism of control, and part of the construction of these communities as other, their "infidelidad" was eventually deemed innate and inherited, and therefore ever-present, which means interior conversion is impossible. This was a great contrast to attitudes at the beginning of the century, when

[^275]Castilian old Christians thought that baptism would lead to a change in outward actions which would indicate Christianization and acculturation. And although there was evidence that some people were only outwardly adhering to Christianity, ${ }^{966}$ by the beginning of the seventeenth century the elements of a narrative that would justify the expulsions were in place: the construction of members of these communities as non-Christian and nonSpanish.

Dealing with matters of the heart gets at the issues of true conversion for this community. It was a last-ditch effort to bring this community into the fold. After a century of policing their actions, they tried to change their hearts. After emphasis on the instruction of this community, Document XLIII, about the "conversion of the moriscos," from the year 1600 summarizes the reasons to seek conversion and the approach and challenges to this conversion. ${ }^{967}$ The conversion of members of these communities was necessary because they were now considered an internal enemy (alien), and expulsion would be difficult and inconvenient. ${ }^{968}$ The solution to this threat depended not on policing external acts, which aid in dissimulation or hiding, but on the "true conversion" of this (already baptized) community. ${ }^{969}$ What was meant by true conversion was further explained as "the conversion from the bottom of the heart." 970

[^276]As noted, the idea that the new Christians or nuevos convertidos were heretics or apostates or infidels was part of the construction of this whole community as other. In Granada, after baptism moros became new Christians or newly converted; as the century progressed new Christians or the newly converted became moriscos, as seen in the expulsion-related documents. In Valencia, although the term "morisco" coexisted with the phrases "new Christians" and "newly converted," many additional terms became common, including "nuevos convertidos," "nación," "gente," and as seen above "heretics" and "apostates." Eventually and in many ways these terms will be discarded, even beyond "morisco," in favor of "moro." The return to "moro" was the fuller ethnic, racial, and religious othering of the entire community-the so-called racialist turn.

The language in Document XL is helpful to understand the othering of this community as being non-Christian, and in doing so also accomplishing the othering of the community as non-Spanish. Significant is the fact that this was done without using the term "morisco." The following table (RE: Document XL) helps to illustrate this point:

Table 4.2: Archivo Holland - Document XL ${ }^{971}$

| Term/ Phrase | No. of times |
| :--- | :---: |
| Moros/ Moor | 24 |
| nuevos convertidos/ new converts | 22 |
| cristianos nuevos/ nuevos cristianos <br> new Christians | 19 |
| Gente/ people | 15 |
| Morisco | 10 |
| Nación/ Nation | 7 |
| nuevamente convertidos/ newly converted | 2 |
| Moros bautizados/ baptized Moors | 2 |
| moriscos convertidos <br> morisco converts (converted moriscos) | 1 |
| neófitos/ neophytes | 1 |
| Herejes/ heretics |  |
| Apóstatas/ Apostates | 34 |
| Infieles/ Infidel | 18 |

As methodologically enacted before, the analysis of the tallies indicates that the term "morisco" did not have the prevalence, and thus discursive use, as previously seen in other documents. Here the term "moro," qualified phrases with "new" or "newly" and the designating of the community as a "gente" or "nación" far outweighed the use of the term "morisco." In fact, the use of "morisco" was primarily descriptive or added specificity, and

[^277]at times is understood as referring to only part of the community. ${ }^{972}$ Furthermore, in looking at the incidence of use of various terms as found in the table above, the presence of the terms "herejes," "apóstatas," and "infieles," diminished the need to use the term "morisco" as a synonym for the religiously othering of this community. Similarly, the presence of the terms "gente," and "nación" diminished the need to use the term "morisco" as a metonym for the racial or ethnic othering of this community.

The historiography facilitates conceptualizing this community as heretical, apostate, and Muslim—all things that diminish their baptism and support and perpetuate the processes of construction of these communities as non-Christian and non-Spanish. Furthermore, if their baptism was not erased, part of the reason for another difficulty in the study of these communities of Christians is that not only did they have to be Christian, they also had to be "good and faithful" Christians, something that even old Christians may not have been. Therefore, they could be studied as Christians separately from the real or perceived quality of their Christianity. No doubt there were some in these communities who were apostates and Muslims, but also undoubtedly a portion was Christian. As with other Christian communities, there were different degrees of adherence to Christianity regardless of their Christian lineage or former religious background. ${ }^{973}$ It could then be argued that the very mechanisms of control, including the Inquisition, purity of blood statutes, etc. in fact undermined the very "notion of the efficacy of conversion." ${ }^{774}$

## When infant baptism becomes normative

Notwithstanding the presence of distinct Jewish and Muslim communities, by the late Middle Ages most of the people of Europe and the British Isles were considered Christians. As presented in Chapter 1, ${ }^{975}$ since the fifth century infant baptism became

[^278]normative, meaning baptism was not tied to an individual's actual conversion to Christianity. Therefore, instruction in the faith was done after the rite and was verified in the subsequent rite of confirmation, and monitored through the tools of the penitential system. Infants were born into and participated in a hegemonic Christian society; the primary form of instruction was through catechisms, augmented by household practices, and the content of sermons, art, and rituals. Under the scheme developed before, in addition to religion, these varied European Christian groups had some claim to "whiteness." Although that "whiteness" could be contested, outside of the reformation movements, their "christianness" was not.

In the case of the peninsula, as the Christian conquest progressed, much of the peninsula increasingly functioned as a Christian society, with a diminishing subject Muslim population, and after 1238 the only remaining Muslim political stronghold was the Nasrid Kingdom of Granada. Notwithstanding this Christian progress, the norm was not adult baptisms; although it is conceivable there were baptized persons who had not participated in the rite of confirmation. Whatever adult baptisms there were, these would not have been en masse, and conceivably would have occurred after an experience of conversion, as the impetus for a person to seek out baptism and be instructed in the faith: not by decree. Yet, because of the reformation movements, it was also possible to convert from one form of Christianity to another.

Historically, when infant baptism has been normative, conversion as the impetus for baptism was not required and thus these were dissociated from one another. By this is meant that conversion, as an event, would not necessarily be expected or experienced by the infants that were baptized. Yet, there was an expectation for an ongoing life with moments of conversion, or continually turning toward God (metanoia), for all the baptized in society. For a small group, there was the possibility of a different kind of conversion: conversion that lead to a particular kind of life within Christianity: ordained and/or monastic.

In societies where there was a presence of multiple religions, there were opportunities for adult conversion from one religion to another (though this did not necessarily occur in large numbers), as was seen in the early church. Whether sought by the person, or sought by the State, the fact remains that at the beginning of the sixteenth century religious otherness was thought to be surmountable. Despite the large number of
baptisms of adults in the peninsula, the catechumenate was not reinstated; adults, after baptism were still expected, and thought capable of leaving behind those prior cultural and religious aspects of life that were antithetical to Christianity. The lack of instruction allowed for a greater distancing of baptism and conversion from one another.

After the decreed baptisms and without adequate instruction (whether fact or a discursive trope), in subsequent generations infant baptism also became normative and may have existed within households of varied adherence to and/or knowledge of Christianity (similarly possible in old-Christian households). Therefore, as seen in Documents XXXVIII, XL, and XLI, ${ }^{976}$ some advocated no longer to baptize infants born to families that did not fully adhere to Christianity (whether factually or discursively). Yet, this would have entailed the possibility of having a group of people that would not fall under the jurisdiction of the Inquisition: a non-Christian and alien element. Some therefore advocated for children to be removed from households for them to be Christianized, yet this suggestion was never fully enacted, although the expulsion decrees did allow for small children to remain in the peninsula and be taken in by Christian households.

Perhaps, since many of these adults themselves were not instructed in the faith prior to baptism nor were born into a solely Christian society, (res publica Christiana); ${ }^{977}$ the need arose (in the minds of some) for a dual process of acculturation, indoctrination and instruction, different than the one developed for children. Furthermore, the processes of acculturation for Granadans, who had more recently come under Christian control, were different from the processes of acculturation required of the mudéjares (e.g. Muslims in Valencia) or later moriscos antiguos (from Castile), who were in many ways already acculturated. They therefore now had to change some of their distinct religio-cultural practices, though for generations these had not been problematic.

Although in the peninsula all Muslims had to seek baptism or be exiled (or be enslaved), across the Atlantic baptism was technically not compulsory and thus baptized Amerindians lived among non-baptized persons. This contributed to the oft repeated discursive/tropic frustration found in the primary documents regarding the perseverance of some non-Christian practices (common in the peninsula as well). In the peninsula, this was exacerbated by the deficiencies in instruction and by repeated moments of lack of

[^279]enforcement, and negotiated royal edicts of grace. The longest delay (of forty years) (with further extensions in some regions) also ensured that subsequent generations may have been raised in a cultural and religious milieu that was neither one nor the other-neither completely Muslim nor completely old Christian.

These accommodations, exemptions, concessions, or graces may have contributed to a perceived slow pace of acculturation and indoctrination or became a convenient excuse and trope. This is not to say that some of those who chose baptism did not immediately begin to integrate fully into Christian fold, but instead that some may have delayed their full acculturation, and its possibility, to the extent that they could continue to negotiate their autonomy, all of which would not necessarily have been a solely religious decision. These persons were not narrated, yet were/are generally subsumed by the category of "morisco."

After the decreed baptisms of Muslims, the quality of their Christianity varied from full adherence to the faith and doctrine as other faithful Christians to outward resistance to the Christian religion. When seen as a spectrum of adherence, our documentary evidence skews to the resistance side, given the preponderance of a negative historical and historiographical narrative about these communities. Yet, the textual narrative does not capture the parts of the communities that probably made few ripples in the historical record, and different hermeneutical lenses would be used that account for this bias, and aim to find other evidence that would supplement the existing and provide a more robust picture of these communities.

Discursively, the zealous concern to safeguard baptism was a factor for this dissociation, and the discursive constructions identified before. Whereas this dissociation could have been remedied through persuasion (the Talavera approach) leading to conversion or instruction prior to baptism (catechumenate), the dissociation was compounded by the aforementioned deficiencies in instruction, decades-long negotiated delays in enforcement or abandoning of prior religious practices, and the raising of children who were, at least discursively, seen to be in households that had deficiencies in instruction and changes in practices. Therefore, just as there was a proliferation of categories between "moro" and "Christian," or between "morisco" and "español" as in the Sistema de Castas, there was a proliferation of discursive barriers between baptism and conversion. Whereas in infant baptism there was an inherent dissociation of baptism and
conversion from one another, in decreed baptisms without instruction these were further dissociated. The population in need of Christianization was Christian, thus the discursive need for them to be suspect Christians. This tension had to be addressed through the tools (mechanisms of control) of the penitential system.

The penitential system that had been developed because of the increased practice of infant baptism and instruction in the faith after baptism was not used consistently with these communities of new Christians. This did not mean that the Inquisition (or threat thereof) was not a significant presence in the lives of new Christians in the peninsula, but that this specific part of the penitential system did not uniformly affect the entire community of new Christians. Whereas all Christians could participate in the ongoing penitential system through confession, penance, and absolution, not all Christians, and certainly not all new Christians, were prosecuted by the Inquisition. Although with exceptions baptized descendants of Muslims were expelled from the peninsula, and this is a wholesale condemnation of this community as suspect and alien (non-Christian and non-Spanish), not all of these Christians were prosecuted by the Inquisition for heresy or apostasy. Indeed, as discussed before there is increasing evidence that there were baptized descendants of Muslims who remained in the peninsula. The discursive processes and constructions allowed for this to happen.

The primary purpose of the tools of the penitential system, especially the Inquisition, was to bring repentant heretics and apostates back into the Christian fold; there were also penalties, including death, for the unrepentant. Yet, for a person or community to be determined heretical or apostate, a process had to be undergone, whether through a church council or Inquisitorial trial. The processes undergone with respect to these communities functioned in some ways as those of the penitential system, but were in fact not part of the penitential system: language and discourse as a mechanism of control. Many of the primary documents provide lists of grievances against this community. Yet, not all grievances against this community were capable of being denounced to the Inquisition.

There were two types of grievances: those that fell under the guise of religious practice and thus could be deemed heretical, apostatizing, or Islamizing; and those that were socio-cultural practices that were not shared by other Christians in the peninsula The socio-cultural practices could be deemed interrelated to religious practices, but need
not be so. The crimes punishable by the Inquisition generally fell under the rubric of "the ceremonies and rites of Islam" such as fasting during Ramadan, attending Friday prayers, and publicly renouncing Christianity or blaspheming. The socio-cultural practices that were related to religious practices included the manner of marriage and burial, as well as circumcision, and abstaining from pork and wine.

Inquisitorial records alone cannot be the primary source to make metonymic generalizations about the whole community of baptized descendants of Muslims; and, since not all members of these communities were prosecuted and thus convicted of heresy or apostasy, most of the communities technically remained within the Christian fold. Again, the argument is that the use of the term "morisco" would diminish the fact that the violence on these communities was done by co-religionists, not by people getting rid of a threat in the form of people of a different religion, who were all the while making religion indelible.

Therefore, in reading primary documents that refer to instruction, indoctrination, and conversion for this Christian community, the irregularities in the context that led to baptism needed to be remediated by further campaigns of instruction and indoctrination, which would presumably lead to the "true" conversion and thus Christianizing of these Christian communities. The culmination of this theological thought process happened outside of Granada and after 1571. Part of the thought process for the expulsion of the Granadans to Castile was presumably that it was a way to acculturate the new Christians (from Granada) to a more Christian society in Castile, given the rebellion, but also the "failure" of acculturation in their own region.

One of the justifications that ultimately led to the expulsions of members of these Christian communities was the dissociation between baptism and conversion (that is, between baptism and living a Christian way of life). This dissociation was also related to the question of how a Christian was to be Christianized. Taking the idea of morisco as non-Christian, leads to repeated mentions in secondary documents about the Christianization of the moriscos. Of course, if morisco is historiographically understood as non-Christian or less than fully Christian, this Christianization may seem like a reasonable project, but when Christianization was of Christians (even new Christians), a further question ensues, namely: what did it (or does it) mean to Christianize moriscos vs. Christianizing "new Christians"? And, are these questions inherently different?

The primary documents studied do not reflect the idea of "Christianization." Since the community was primarily referred to as "newly converted" or "new Christians," the documents refer to a process of instruction and indoctrination. Illustrative here are the documents from 1595-1600 found in Rodrigo de Zayas' book (Documents XXIVXXXVIII). ${ }^{978}$ These documents also show the problems faced by the church when baptism was separated from a Christian way of life (conversion) for generations. In 1595 there was a renewed effort (and mandate from Philip II) to instruct the community of the newly converted (newly now in the nominative), meaning to change their behavior to a Christian one. These documents repeatedly mention the instruction, indoctrination, and education of the newly converted. The phrases "instruction of the newly converted" and "indoctrination of the newly converted" occur dozens of times in these documents. There was also emphasis on preaching as a means of instruction. These same documents not only use the phrase "instruction of the newly converted" but also "instruction of the moriscos."979

In Valencia, after the 1580s, the terms "morisco" and "newly converted" were used interchangeably in the same documents. This renewed effort at instruction had some success in Valencia, but part of this community continued to adhere to practices and beliefs associated with Islam. Although efforts at instruction and indoctrination continued through the time of the expulsions, the language of the texts changed. The change had to do with how to approach not only the instruction/indoctrination of this community, but also the true conversion of this community (both in belief and practice). Of note here was the juxtaposition of newly converted and conversion, a pairing that was more prevalent than new Christian and conversion, which in itself was another nuanced change in language. Baptism as a ritual had been completely dissociated from living a Christian way of life and this required reversal.

In the end, just as the discursive distance between Muslim and Christian was increased, albeit to keep groups of Christians within the control of the church, the distance between baptism and conversion was also discursively extended and exacerbated by deficiencies in instruction. The theological discourses went along with the othering

[^280]discourses, as necessary elements for the discursive justifications of the expulsions of many Christians. Although Spanish Christians of Muslim descent were expelled, this was accomplished by making them suspect and alien, all the while safeguarding the rite of baptism.

The analysis done in this chapter yields two overall conclusions. First, there is a disconnection between the historical morisco and the historians' morisco. Second, a theological strategy that contributed to the justifications of the expulsions required the discursive dissociation of baptism and conversion from one another. Many different discourses were needed to achieve the otherness of these communities as suspect Christian and an alien within: non-Christian and non-Spanish.

The disconnection between the historical and the historiographical obfuscates the processes of othering and differentiation of these communities within Spain, and is biased toward homogenizing this community as solely Muslim, regardless of baptism. Yet, it was these very othering processes, eventually discursively reified, which functioned as mechanisms to justify the expulsions of communities of Christians from the peninsula. Historians have perpetuated this constructed discourse. A specific way of showing the disconnection was analyzing secondary works and how these related to the primary texts being analyzed. This analysis was not a critique of the scholarly volumes (since each had its own aim and approach), but an opportunity to see the impact "a language choice" may have in uncovering and understanding additional discourses in the primary texts.

Some of the examples show how authors explicitly dismissed the language from the primary texts in favor of the handle "morisco." Although there were a few instances of confusion in the primary texts, "morisco" was never equal to "moro" nor co-terminus with "new Christian." This historiographical dismissal led to the construction of the historians' morisco which is an eternal morisco. There are many other linguistic choices that historians can make. The use of "morisco" as a term of convenience is exacerbated by the difficulty of translating it into English. For example, for those writing in English there are problems with always translating morisco as Moorish. As shown, this should only be done when it is used as a descriptive term and should be avoided when "morisco" is used in the nominative.

By using or actually (over)using "morisco" the non-static, transitional, and hybrid qualities of the terminology are overlooked as are the processes (including othering processes) encompassed in the changes in usage and meaning of the terms and phrases. The term "morisco" was not initially static, neither was "new Christian" or "newly converted." The difference between old Christians and new Christians was not as much as has been historiographically believed or discursively created, as we can see from the trans-Atlantic analysis of the term "morisco." Relying on the eternal "morisco" erases the people and stories of those that, regardless of the discursive othering, gained old Christian status or were indistinguishable from all Christians. Since these possibilities existed, meaning that the difference was not self-evident, it was necessary to create barriers for progression; further categories were created or obstacles introduced.

Contrasts were made between the analysis (secondary texts) and the texts (primary). The differences revealed further areas where the textual processes of othering of these communities occurred. This was not only true in the movement of terms/phrases from "moro" to "new Christian" or "newly converted" or "nuevos convertidos" to "morisco" and back to "moro," but can be seen in the increased use of the terms "nación" and "gente" (ethnic othering) and the religious terms "infidel," herejes," "apóstatas" (religious othering). Seeing these communities as solely Muslim and inassimilable buys into the constructed narrative of a group that was non-Christian and non-Spanish.

The "assimilated" or "acculturated" portion of the community is erased by historians and completely absorbed by "morisco." Attentively (re)reading the texts for changes in language usage and meaning can help to uncover some invisible and non-narrated elements of these communities. Correcting the disconnection between the historical and the historiographical, also brings the study of these communities into the orbit of research on the identity development of Spain as as a nation and empire as the sixteenth century progressed. Especially, Spanish-identity construction at the expense of its Moorish and Jewish constitutive elements.

The external construction of Spain as Jewish and Muslim, as in the discourses of the so-called BlackLegend, did not help these communities. The expulsion was required to remove the part of the self which was the other within. The difference between old and new Christians was not as great as it was constructed to be. They must have looked very similar if the expectation was that if they changed the externals (clothes, language, and
rituals) they could be just like any other Spaniard in the peninsula. When it became evident that this was impossible or was made to be impossible: it was the devious and impure heart and not just a religious stain (Muslimness, heresy, apostasy, infidelity) or an ethnic stain (nación, gente) that was blamed.

The second conclusion reached in this chapter is about the dissociation of baptism and conversion from one another. The lack of instruction prior to baptism, combined with delays in enforcement, and the manner of the initial baptisms, contributed, at least to the perception of a slow pace of Christianization. This can be seen not only as a willful refusal on the part of this minority community, but also in the incompetence of the church. The church initially failed by thinking that outward changes would lead these communities to being considered Christian and Spanish.

Yet at the same time the church wanted to control these communities as much as possible. And to do so, the church could not allow them to be fully moro, because once fully moro with the approval of the church and state they would no longer fall under the jurisdiction of the church. This then led to the church insisting on theological determinants for the validity of baptisms, and thus to focusing on instruction, conversion, and the heart. The (mis)use of the term "morisco" hides this process and prevents studying, at least parts of these communities as Christian. If these communities can be studied as communities of Christians, their expulsion can be seen as aspect of an intra-religious struggle, rather than inter-religious.

In the end, why these Christians were expelled is not elucidated further, since the answers to this question are wrapped in layers of historical, theological, and historiographical discourses that first must be identified. Once these discourses are separated and identified, the language used to justify the expulsions can be better understood. Whether those who were expelled were "good and faithful" Christians or not is yet to be determined, but it is known that through the construction of the other as nonChristian and non-Spanish (suspect and alien) and the dissociation of baptism and conversion from one another, the expulsions were justified and enacted. Spain removed fully in the imaginary and partially in reality a part of its very self.

## Conclusion

The preceding pages included the analysis of a series of primary texts, which aided in the identification and elucidation of the language and discourses that constructed sixteenth-century non-monolithic Christian and Spanish communities as non-Christian and non-Spanish; as suspect and alien. These constructions were used the beginning of the seventeenth century to justify historically and historiographically the expulsions of many baptized descendants of Muslims who were formally and theologically Christian but deemed by those in power not to be sufficiently so. Historiographically, this project has been about discerning the difference, to the extent the texts allow, between studying "new Christians" and studying "moriscos." The analysis and narrative of this project did not ultimately elucidate why these communities of Christians were expelled from the peninsula between 1609 and 1614. It did, however, uncover linguistic process that were used to justify the expulsions for over a century-a how this was accomplished question.

In the Introduction, it was proposed that this thesis function at the historical, methodological, discursive, and historiographical levels. This conclusion evaluates the findings and originality at those same levels. Although it is possible that the approaches used for this project will be applicable to other sets of documents and that such an expansion might fine tune the conclusions reached, that is not the purpose here. Thus, a self-reflexive post-colonial and deconstructionist approach.

## Historical

Chapter 3 enacted the methodology and theoretical approach developed and presented in Chapter 2. It was a quantitative approach used for qualitative conclusions and theories. The "counting" and mapping process revealed a variety of terminology, as well as changes based on time, and regional differences. The quantitative analysis exposed that although the community is identified historiographically as the so-called moriscos, in the sixteenth century there existed a variety of referential terms and phrases used to name members of the communities of baptized descendants of Muslims. Some of the terms and phrases included "new Christian," "newly converted," "nuevos convertidos," and "morisco." In addition to language changes as the sixteenth century progressed, when primary documents were analyzed from outside of Granada, such as those from Valencia and the expulsion-related documents, regional variations were similarly identified
in the terminology such as "moriscos mudéjares," "moriscos antiguos," and even "cristianos nuevos moriscos."

Based on the Granadan and Valencian documents a schema emerged which generally showed that the language changes progressed along a chronological, yet circular, axis, from the terminology at the time of the final conquest of the Nasrid Kingdom of Granada in the late fifteenth century to the apologetic texts written after the expulsions in the early seventeenth centuries. The terms or phrases changed from "moro" to "new Christian" and "newly converted" (after baptism) to "nuevos convertidos" to "morisco" and ultimately, in the peninsula, apologetically back to "moro" (after the expulsions). Although the idea represented in a circular model rather than a linear one may convey that this community "reverted back" to "moro" (as Muslim), it is well to remember that some of the connotations of the term "moro" themselves changed in the same period. Put differently, the cyclical image should not imply either that members of these communities were discursively and statically considered to have remained Muslim for all times and places during the period under study, or that the changes were solely changes in referential terminology, or indeed that the "Moor" in the seventeenth century was the same as the "Moor" before the decreed baptisms a century earlier. Furthermore, morisco does not go back to moro across the Atlantic were the racialist turn was completed.

Figure 1: Language changes


Moriscos


Nuevos
Convertidos
Nuevos
Convertidos

Moro


New Christian/ Newly
Converted

After baptism, a person becomes a Christian, not a new Christian. In the case of persons of Jewish or Islamic religious background, in short, those who were initially religiously other, there was the sense that they could become Christians, albeit immediately after baptism considered to be "new" or "recent" in the faith. Being dubbed a new Christian or newly converted at the beginning, chronologically, was a state that could and would theoretically be overcome. Thus, the terms were initially descriptive and temporal, and falling under the category of new Christian was understood as a non-static state. Similarly, the baptism of these persons was thought to bring persons of Jewish and Islamic backgrounds closer to other persons of Christian descent, because they were originally only religiously other, not other in their "Spanishness." Put differently, Muslims or Jews after baptism were expected to be just like any other Christian in the peninsula. Baptism then was a tool to make some Spaniards no longer different (meaning religiously other) from other Spaniards, or bring relatively similar groups even closer to one another.

Notwithstanding the theoretical possibility of change from one category to another, the phrases "new Christian" and "newly converted" would become part of a proliferation of referential categories-a differentiation and othering-that would ensure that members of these communities could not become Christian like all other Christians. Yet, these phrases by themselves do not confirm the existence of a proliferation of referential terms in the sixteenth century. These observations become clearer when one compares the referential language used before and after baptism to the language that refers to Amerindians across the Atlantic before and after baptism, where there indeed was initially a more distinctive otherness between Spaniards and Amerindians. Furthermore, hints are seen in these phrases about the increasing conflation of religion and race in the peninsula.

As noted in Chapter 3, across the Atlantic when Amerindians were baptized they were still referred to as "indios" and very rarely as "Christians," let alone as "new Christians." After baptism, Amerindians were still indios and certainly not closer to Spanish. Here the idea that Amerindians and Spaniards were more epidermically different to one another than peninsular old- and new-Christian Spaniards were from each other becomes clear. Therefore, the initial temporal and non-static (descriptive) language of "new" in the phrase "new Christian" meant that it was initially thought to be possible for Muslims to become like all other Spanish old Christians after baptism because initially there was a surmountable religious otherness, which then became insurmountable when
those in power made it indelible, understood historiographically as epidermic. This supports the hypothesis that the difference between old and new Christians may in fact have been a mostly discursively constructed otherness. As analyzed in Chapter 3, by using the Sistema de Castas (also a constructed system) as a barometer for how epidermic difference was understood and categorized by old-Christian Spaniards (normatively Castilians), the difference between the peninsular communities was posited to be at most $25 \%$. This is theorized given that the category of "morisco" in the Sistema de Castas was $75 \%$ español (white) and $25 \%$ African (black).

Furthermore, given the identified temporal and regional variations and changes in the peninsula, "morisco" cannot be fully naming the whole community of the baptized descendants of Muslims. "Morisco" was not then and is not now metonymy. The term "morisco" may in fact have referred to and be appropriate for only some in the communities, and may not always be an appropriate short-hand for the whole community.

## Methodological

The reading of the primary texts revealed a variety of terms and phrases used to name various communities of baptized descendants of Muslims. By reading the texts chronologically and regionally, changes as time progressed were identified, as well as regional variations. The analysis of the texts was approached both quantitatively and in a deconstructionist and catachrestic manner. In short, the changes in historical language usage and meaning identified were further analyzed and posited as corresponding to discursive processes. For example, it was theorized that before reaching the term "morisco," the phrases "new Christian," "newly converted," and "nuevos convertidos" had to be nominalized; that "new" and "newly" were no longer descriptive but referential and defining characteristics—eventually indelible ones. Whereas "new" and "newly" initially implied temporality as descriptors, as nominative terms they became fixed referential positions.

Like changes in these phrases and terms, as the century progressed there were parallel changes and increased uses of the term "morisco." "Morisco" went from being primarily used as a descriptor (easily translatable into English as "Moorish"), to being a term used to name the community. Moreover, as "morisco" was nominalized, in many ways it increasingly overtook the phrases previously used. During the process of
nominalization multiple terms could co-exist without being co-terminus. The nominalization of the phrases and term "new Christian," "newly converted," "nuevos convertidos," and "moriscos" (and others) was part of the discursive processes of differentiation and othering which created categories of suspect, inferior, or deficient Christians. Put differently, the historical changes noted, seen as discursive processes, show how these changes functioned to construct the communities of baptized descendants of Muslims as different and other.

Within the processes of nominalization there were two opposing discursive strategies at work. First, in the arena of progression, there were tendencies toward fixidity, narrowing, and homogenization. Homogenized terms were used as tropes in the primary texts and were understood by some historians as useful metonymies and even "reality" (reified). Although in many ways these tendencies prevailed, they were contra-rested by hybrid moments in the processes in which the terminology was not indelibly settled, or named all in the communities. Put differently, the phrases and terms under study had moments when they were not considered non-Christian or equal to Muslim, or even nonSpanish. The term "morisco" signifying non-Christian and non-Spanish was a result of a series of processes, including the discursive construction of difference and othering. These were processes that required movement from possibility to impossibility, from surmountable to insurmountable otherness. The discursive otherness of the baptized descendants of Muslims made them non-Christian and non-Spanish to justify the expulsions and the imaginary narration of the nation.

## Discursive

The referential language shifts that occurred as the sixteenth century progressed constructed the baptized descendants of Muslims as other. This othering is also part of a minoritizing process. One way in which minoritization occurs is through the narrowing of referential categories. In this case the categories of "spanishness" or "whiteness"-as related to the discourses of the so-called Gothic Myth and Black Legend, discussed in Chapter 2—were what was narrowed; spanishness because there was another contemporary process of national- and imperial-identity construction for Spain; and whiteness since Spain reacted to efforts by other national- and imperial-discursive narratives to blacken Spain morally and racially. The discursive processes of minoritizing
were aided by the nominalizing processes in the language used to refer to the communities as discussed above. Combined, these processes helped to justify the expulsions at the beginning of the seventeenth century. To reiterate: the historical expulsions were justified discursively; yet the discourse did not wholly reflect the actual level of difference between the communities. This is an important difference between the historical and the discursive, and the historical and historiographical.

The discursive construction processes worked within specific historical frameworks. Yet at times they have unconsciously been read historiographically within different frameworks. One of the specific historical frameworks was the actual religious otherness of Christians and Muslims before the decreed baptisms. At the beginning of the sixteenth century baptism technically erased this religious otherness, or at least thought of as being able to be erased; by the seventeenth century it was insurmountable. After the decreed baptisms were enacted, rather than erasing the religious otherness baptism (re)inscribed that otherness. The categories of "new Christian" and "newly converted" helped to maintain the previous matrix of difference. They were still other, despite baptism. As said before, morisco could not be the same as moro and was constructed not to equal either new Christian nor old Christian.

This new religious otherness was different because it became an intra- rather than inter-religious otherness. Although the new otherness maintained the groups separate discursively, given baptism, the new Christians in this different framework were not dealt with as Muslims; new Christians became subjects under the control of the Church and the Inquisition, not just the State. In short, it is termed a (re)inscription because a new boundary was created to substitute for the boundary removed by baptism. This (re)inscription is then often understood historiographically within the convivencia and Reconquista paradigms, although the tri/bipartite religious matrix (or bipartite since 1492/1497) no longer existed.

Since the changes in meaning and usage of the terminology, as well as the nominalization, minoritization, and othering are all seen as processes, this project also posited and identified additional steps. There was a further shift beyond the one from inter- to intra-religious difference, and that was to non-religious, or, put differently from inter-religious (Christian and Muslim) to intra-Christian religious difference to a community of indelibly non-Christians, albeit still under the control of the Church, including the

Inquisition, and the State. "Non" not in the sense of lack of religiousness, but as indelibly different, thus non-Christian, and without the possibility of ever being so, or of also not being able to be Muslim (moro).

There were several parallel processes occurring as the sixteenth century progressed, that have been of peripheral yet contributing concern in the analysis found in this thesis. The central processes were those of nominalization, othering, minoritization, etc. One peripheral process was the competing and contemporary construction of Spanish-imperial and -national identity. Another parallel and contributing process was that of the increased somatization of religion, perhaps a meta-process that lasted three centuries or more, from the late fourteenth century to well into the seventeenth century. For example, the indelibility of religion was increasingly attached to ideas of racial and/or ethnic difference (otherness), whether these existed or not.

Therefore, the idea of constructing a Christian community or communities as nonChristian was dependent on tying Islam (and Judaism) to race and/or ethnicity, and in the case of Islam, increasingly to Africa, even sub-Saharan Africa, and the slave trade. Thus, Islam was tied to blood and to Africa, indelibly making the baptized descendants of Muslims both non-Christian and non-Spanish, two discursive requisites for the justifications of the expulsions-discursively religious and racially other, and therefore both suspect and alien. Put differently, at least three stages in this process of othering can be identified: from religious otherness (inter-religious)—which did not strictly correspond to epidermic or socio-cultural difference-to a different religious otherness (intra-Christian), to a racial or ethnic, and epidermic and somatic indelible otherness (non-Christian and non-Spanish). Deborah Root named these as being shifts from "infidel" (inter-) to "heretic" (intra-) to "impenitente negativo" (non-). Another similar process that was posited, as seen in the work of Barbara Fuchs in the literary realm, was the shift from Maurophilia to Maurophobia, presented in Chapter 2.

The halting of the progression of a community (or communities) from being able to move from Muslim to Christian through baptism—or of Christians becoming truly Christian-was accomplished by the proliferation of categories. The construction, or invention, of "less-than-fully" Christian categories, added obstacles of progression toward the full-Christian (old-Christian) status after baptism. This functioned similarly to the Sistema de Castas, where progression toward being Spanish (white) was similarly
complicated. The progression toward the nominalized "morisco" (homogenization/fixidity) counteracted the movement toward old Christian, and since religious otherness was increasingly somatized, also to Spanish. In short, more and more categories were added between moro and Christian, making conversion discursively impossible. Yet, although impossible, to maintain religious control of these communities, they could not be allowed to revert discursively to moro.

A clear and thus revealing example was offered of the proliferation of categories and the somatization of religion in the analysis of the Sistema de Castas for México and Perú, discussed in Chapter 3, especially along the Spanish-African spectrum which included the category of "morisco." The parallel is as follows: baptism was theoretically meant to remove religious otherness between Muslims and Christians, yet other categories were inserted that prevented the realization of such a progression. Similarly, the adding of Spanish blood to African blood, generation after generation, was supposed eventually to lead to Spanishness. Morisco was supposed to be one step away from Spanish as the comparable castizo category was ( $75 \%$ español and $25 \%$ indio). Yet, morisco was at least four steps away from Spanish, given the addition of new categories even to the ${ }^{1 / 32^{\text {nd }}}$ degree, as seen in Chapter 3.

The eventual discursive construction of these communities as non-Christian and non-Spanish had to be done with the theological imperative to safeguard the rite of baptism. This was done discursively by making the problem one with conversion and not with baptism, thus dissociating each from the other. As introduced in Chapter 1, and shown in Chapter 4, this was further aided by the fact that the baptism of infants had been normative for centuries, and that the catechumenate was not restored once a great number of adults were decreed to be baptized in a very short amount of time. The language of the primary texts was overwhelmingly about conversion and not baptism, thus safeguarding the indelibility of baptism. Baptism and conversion also needed to be dissociated from one another to continue to use the "baptized" status as a tool of social control or mechanism of control, by making sure that these communities continued to be under the control of the Church, in addition to the State.

A theological problem arises regarding whether religion is indelible or inheritable or of the "blood," whether it was thought of as such throughout the sixteenth century, and how the thinking on this changed as the century progressed. Furthermore, how was the
understanding of indelibility impacted by the contemporaneous increased discursive othering of groups (in this case descendants of Muslims)? Put differently, whereas at the beginning of the century it was thought that conversion was possible and thus baptism was sought as a means of conversion (in addition to control), by the end of the century conversion was thought of as impossible, regardless of baptism. The possibility of conversion existed at the beginning of the century notwithstanding the recent exile of nonbaptized Jews and precursor historical othering of Jews. By this is meant that although discursive failures in conversion had been commonly stated regarding the baptized descendants of Jews, the baptisms of Muslims were still sought and thus conversion of Muslims was initially still thought possible, even with baptism being used as tool of control. Another reason to posit that the actual difference between those persons of different religious otherness was thought to be surmountable therefore was not inherently apparent.

The contradictions abounded from the onset. Archbishop Francisco Jiménez de Cisneros treated the non-baptized descendants of Christians, the so-called helches, as apostate Christians, although they were not-baptized and perhaps even children of Muslims, and thus arrested them and tried to force them into baptism. Jiménez de Cisneros also pushed the monarchs toward decreeing the baptism of the Granadan Muslims and other Muslims in Castile after the first rebellion of the Alpujarras. Therefore, for Jiménez de Cisneros, Christianity, and not Islam, was indelible and inheritable. By the end of the century, with the discursive racialization of religious otherness, although baptism was safeguarded the baptized descendants of Muslims were deemed nonChristian. Yet the consequence of this was that the very racialization of religious otherness allowed for Islam to be just as indelible and inheritable as Christianity alone was thought to have been. In essence old Christians (the Church) chose a closed system over an open system, chose not to have groups of people belong, and justified this by constructing and imposing their indelible otherness. Old Christians did not want to have these communities be Christian, yet they wanted to control them as Christian communities. Thus, communities of baptized descendants of Muslims could still be controlled because of their lack of conversion, but given their baptism.

Therefore, the discourse of the indelibility and inheritability (somatization) of religion supports both the justifications for the expulsions and the narrative of these communities having never converted and thus always having been crypto-Muslims. Analyses that take
this discourse as the sole reality lived by members of these various communities miss the ongoing processes of nominalization, otherness, and minoritization. Therefore, in identifying the historical shifts in the language used to refer to the communities of baptized descendants of Muslims, and the associated processes, light was shed on the significant difference between the language of the primary texts and the historiographical language of secondary works.

## Historiographical

A reality confronted throughout the research and analysis for this project, was that to bring to the fore the historical use of the term "morisco," as well as the other phrases of interest, and the historical changes and associated processes, these needed to be untangled from the historical from the discursive and historiographical, as well as from some overarching historiographical narratives about the history of Spain in general, and of the baptized descendants of Muslims in particular. In short, it was concluded that the historical morisco may in fact be different from the historians' morisco and the latter is made into the eternal morisco. Thus, given this dissonance, the historiographical (over)use of the term "morisco" has obfuscated the very discursive processes that led to the construction of the baptized descendants of Muslims as non-Christian and nonSpanish (suspect and alien), including those done with language (e.g. the term "morisco") as a mechanism of control. The (over)use of the term "morisco" becomes an example of the inherent problems with metonymies and homogenous conclusions.

The historians' (over)use of the term "morisco" was identified because the quantitative study of the primary texts revealed how its usage in the primary texts differed from that in secondary works. The analysis verified that the historical morisco was different from the historians', and that the historians' morisco became an eternal morisco. This occurred notwithstanding the fact that "morisco" was not the only term or phrase used, or statically used, or that it was used always and everywhere. Furthermore, since "morisco" was not an instance of metonymy, it was shown that it should not always be substituted for the phrases "new Christian," "newly converted," or "nuevos convertidos," etc. For a premature substitution hides the process of nominalization and othering discourses, among others. A further problem of using "morisco" as metonymy or of not understanding "morisco" as a trope is that the discursive "morisco," with its negative
connotations, has been read as historical reality, that is, as only being non-Christian and non-Spanish.

The untangling of the historical morisco from the historians' morisco goes beyond the essential substitution of one term or phrase for another. The untangling requires addressing some of the historiographical impacts of the ideas of convivencia and Reconquista, and the veneer of the discourses of the Gothic Myth and so-called Black Legend as paradigms in the study of Spain. For example, the fact that there was a proliferation of categories to prevent the baptized descendants of Muslims from being Christians like any other Christians, and the ways this was done discursively at times fits nicely into the tri/bipartite religious matrix of the study of Spain and its historical multiplicity of religious communities. Yet, this then obfuscates the fact that the dynamics became intra-Christian ones rather than inter-religious ones. After 1492/1497 there was a bipartite religious matrix given the expulsion of peninsular Jews, and after the 1520s there was technically only one religion-Christianity—given the final decreed baptisms of Muslims. Although it is not normative to fit the sixteenth century into the convivencia and Reconquista paradigms, the organization of the historical data still orders the history along those lines: animosity between groups and anything said to be "non-Christian," whether factual or not, must fit within the (inter-) tri/bipartite matrix, and thus belong to Judaism or Islam and not to Spanish or Christianity.

As Francisco Marquez Villanueva and others argue, and as presented and discussed in Chapter 2, there are some dominant historiographical errors that complicate the study of the baptized descendants of Muslims. The anachronistic and (over)use of the term "morisco" support the tropic historiographical errors (or a priori and de facto biases) regarding these communities: their otherness, irreducibility, inassimilability, lack of conversion, and threat as a fifth-column. In essence, the historiography begins from a post-expulsion point of view, thus taking the decreed baptisms as the root cause of the inevitable expulsions, in a teleological, colonial, and modern sense. Underlying this is the wholesale buying into a causation narrative-that the decreed baptisms of the first quarter of the sixteenth century inevitably led to, or could only result in, the expulsions of the beginning of the seventeenth century. An important benefit of trying to overcome these historiographical biases is to better understand how the expulsions were discursively justified.

Some historians have not recognized or noticed that the othering of the baptized descendants of Muslims (which required the somatization of religion) was a reaction to discursive elements of the so-called Black Legend which had constructed Spain as the religious and racial other of Europe and England. This was in turn related to the emerging Spanish-state and -imperial identities, which were competing with similar identity constructions and claims by other emerging powers, such as the English, Dutch, and French. The more external views of Spain blackened Spaniards with respect to Europe (thus narrowing the category of whiteness), the more Spain constructed an identity without those elements which they deemed to be the source of their so-called "blackness."

To sum up, the primary texts of concern for this thesis were analyzed in order to identify the referential language used to name the communities of baptized descendants of Muslims in the peninsula in the sixteenth century. Through the analysis a series of processes including that of nominalization were identified. These processes contributed to discourses of othering that constructed these communities as non-Christian and nonSpanish, thus justifying their expulsions, while still maintaining control of the communities while in the peninsula, given their baptized status. These processes and discourses were part of a broader meta-schema of the racialization of religion as it occurred from the fifteenth through the seventeenth centuries in the Spanish realm. In the remaining pages this meta-schema is presented again, as well as a summary of the original contributions of this research as found in this thesis project.

## Other conclusions:

There have been several challenges in the approach to and presentation of the findings in this study of primary (and secondary) texts referring to the baptized descendants of Muslims in the sixteenth century. Among the challenges are the inherent problems with the essentializing (metonymic and homogenous) tendency in the use of language, combined with the intentional avoidance of using language in the text of this thesis in a stable or static manner. These two polarities are in tension with one another throughout the entire text that results in this thesis.

Another challenge was to avoid using the findings of this research to state that they are applicable to all other data about these same populations. At best, the approach may be transferable; for now, it is only suggested that these conclusions apply to this universe
of texts. Notwithstanding this deconstructionist and catachrestic position, the identification of long-term processes also suggests that there may be some meta-narratives or metaschemas at work. In this case the meta-schema identified is that of the racialization of religion or racialist turn, as specifically related to the Spanish referential identity construction. These were all in the pre-Enlightenment; therefore, as a racialist turn the meta-schema should not assume all the racial/ethnic connotations that would emerge with the Enlightenment and beyond. In other words, race in this case should not be understood as the construct of race is used today. There are three steps identified here in the racialization of religion, though of course there were many more progressive steps and counter-currents.

The posited first step in the racialization of religion was crystalized and had a genesis with the mass baptisms of Jews at the end of the fourteenth and beginning of the fifteenth centuries. With these baptisms a great number of new Christians, primarily adults, entered the fold of the Church. As mentioned before, these baptisms occurred without the reintroduction of the catechumenate. Decades after these baptisms, a specific reaction to these communities of Christians emerged in the form of the purity of blood statutes and their proliferation. At this point, although blood was (and is) and may be considered an indelible human characteristic, this blood was not fully attached to race as understood and deconstructed. The issue of blood (interpreted as blood taint) for those descendants of Jews or Muslims, became a continual challenge to the emerging construction of Spanish-imperial and -national identity. This is very much a colonial narrative.

Similar to what was later noticed with the referential language of the baptized descendants of Muslims, there had been a proliferation of referential language for the baptized descendants of Jews—language such as "converso" and "marrano." It is proposed that that the term "converso" should be studied in the same way that "morisco" was done here, that is to further strengthen the theorized meta-narrative that the initial stages of the somatization of religion could be traced to the reactions to the mass baptism of Jews and the communities of their baptized descendants. Notwithstanding the expulsion of Jews in 1492/97, the racialization processes continued, and in some ways were transferred to the communities of the baptized descendants of Muslims.

Religion was further somaticized after the mass baptism of Muslims in the first quarter of the sixteenth century, the second step. This increased somatization can be seen in the nominalization processes identified before, which made religion increasingly indelible and thus inheritable. The discursive somatization of religion was used as an explanation for the wholesale lack of conversion of all baptized descendants of Muslims and thus discursively justified their expulsions. The somatization of religion became the fundamental source of the historiographical mixing of racial/ethnic and religious categories, often without noting this as part of an ongoing discursive process.

Given the internal displacement and later external expulsions, the trans-Atlantic lens brings into relief the overall somatization of religion, or third step. This is because the use of the trans-Atlantic lens, and Amerindians as a control group, revealed the difference and the construction of difference, the ways religious categories became racial categories without religion always attached to them. Studying Amerindians showed that the difference between baptized descendants of Muslims and baptized descendants of (those that have always been) Christians was mostly constructed, or at the very least initially thought to be surmountable with the passage of time and for subsequent generations. Alongside this is the fact that the processes toward the full conflation of religion and race/ethnicity—somatization of religion-in Spain, was truncated by the early-seventeenth century peninsular expulsions, thus necessitating finding the next steps in the process elsewhere in the Spanish imperial realm. In this case, it was found in México and Perú and understood as functioning as illustrated in the Sistema de Castas.

With the conflation of religious and racial categories a full racialist turn was completed. As seen in the Sistema de Castas the term "morisco" lost its religious connotation and was solely used as a racial or epidermic category. It is understood that this was part of the completion of the conflation of Islam with sub-Saharan Africa that resulted from the trans-Atlantic sub-Saharan African slave trade. It was this completed process that existed as the Enlightenment emerged.

## Originality

In addition to the manner or style of this thesis, in many other ways also this entire project has been quite non-traditional and original. The non-monolithic peninsular Muslim communities of the beginning of the sixteenth century, their baptized descendants
(technically Christians), and generations later those who were eventually expelled, have been the subject of many studies—as discussed in Chapter 2—and as such fall under the general umbrella of "morisco" studies. This project has contributed to that field of study in four ways:

First, an unusual quantitative approach to the study of the texts that is used to reach qualitative conclusions. These conclusions included unearthing changes in meaning and usage of referential language used to name baptized descendants of Muslims, including the varied terminology, and the related othering processes that corresponded to these changes, which contributed to the discursive justifications of the expulsions. Although the presence of other terminology beyond "morisco" has been noted before in other studies, this had not been done specifically with quantifiable, chronological, and regional foci; or to identify processes and the non-static nature of the use of the term.

A second area of creativity in this thesis is the use of a west-to-east trans-Atlantic lens to posit and ascertain the actual level of peninsular difference, including epidermic difference, between old and new Christians. This is an unusual and catachrestic approach to the subject matter in the peninsula. The contemporaneous baptism of Amerindians, and the related referential language, was used to help demonstrate the existence of various othering discursive processes about the "new Christians of the Moors." The connection to the precursor baptism of Jews served a similar purpose. Taken together, the full processes of somatization of religion can then be seen-from the fifteenth, to the sixteenth, to the seventeenth centuries.

The third area of uniqueness is the identification of the changes and related processes regarding the referential language, which brings to the forefront what is obfuscated by the (over)use of the term "morisco" by historians, and the metonymic use of "morisco" by apologists and in the post-expulsion literature. The preferential use of the term "morisco" by historians is revealed to be anachronistic (e.g. with an a priori expulsion lens), thus missing the steps through which the language changed before it reached "morisco"; to be limited to only part of the communities; and to have been understood historiographically as actual difference rather than as discursive and constructed difference. The way in which the "anachronistic" or "metonymic" was noted in this project is not the usual way of proving this charge.

Through the analysis of the primary texts and the noting of sometimes subtle changes in the language meaning and usage, other changes or tropes or language choices were identified, such as the use of "conversion" instead of "baptismal" languagea change not identified before in the study of these communities and their baptism. The (over)use of the term "morisco" then can act as an a priori biased stance on the impossibility of conversion. Put differently, the language shifts noted in the third item above also aligned with the progression toward the impossibility of conversion, which was, in part, a theological discursive strategy that relied on the dissociation of baptism and conversion from one another, and thus maintained the communities under ecclesiastical control, and ensured the theological (discursive) indelibility and efficacy of baptism. Put differently, if the baptism was not considered valid, the church could not have continued to control these communities though religion; thus, the (discursive) problem was with conversion, not the context of the baptisms.

In the end, the approach to the subject presented here and the conclusions reached in many ways is limited to this particular set of circumstances. Yet, this approach can be applied to contexts in which the historiography speaks of binaries, but the historical reality functioned in processes and spectrums. Any context that has been defined as us versus them could be studied along these lines to discover previously unnoticed processes and justifications for actions toward particular communities. This does not mean that the processes identified will be the same, but that processes nonetheless can be identified. Perhaps if this is done the historiography will come closer to the historical context in many studies.

## Appendix 1: Granadan Primary Documents





${ }^{980}$ Organización de la Iglesia, Appendix 6. There may be an error in the date attributed in this document 15 OCT 1501, since later in the document (p. 289) there is a reference to the date 24 NOV 1501.

\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline 9 \& 20 JUN 1511 \& \begin{tabular}{l}
Sínodo de Guadix, \\
A.10, 171-72
\end{tabular} \& \[
171
\]
\[
171
\]
\[
171
\] \& \begin{tabular}{l}
[From Queen Joanna re: godparents] \\
deseo mucho que los nuevamente convertidos del reino de Granada sean, como deben, muy buenos e fieles cristianos e tengan conversación con los cristianos viejos \\
algunos del mi Consejo e con ciertas personas de los dichos nuevamente convertidos, fue acordado que debía mandar dar esta mi carta. \\
de aquí adelante los padrinos e madrinas que los dichos nuevamente convertidos tomaren para los bautismos...e para sus casamientos, sean cristianos viejos, e que no lo pueda ser ningún nuevamente convertido de moro ni judío.
\end{tabular} \& 1
2

3 <br>

\hline 10 \& 20 JUN 1511 \& | Sínodo de Guadix, |
| :--- |
| A.11, 172-73 | \& | 172 |
| :--- |
| 172 |
| 172 |
| 172/73 | \& | [From Queen Joanna re: meat butchering] |
| :--- |
| que al tiempo que algunos de los nuevamente convertidos del dicho reino se convirtieron...les fue mandado...que en el degollar de la carne no tuviesen las ceremonias que solían tener en tiempo de moros, sino que las degollasen según y cómo las degüellan los cristianos viejos. |
| agora...algunos de los nuevamente convertidos...degüellan algunas veces las carnes como solían en tiempo de moros y no las degüella según y cómo los cristianos viejos |
| e deseando que ellos sean buenos e fieles cristianos |
| [platicado] con algunos del mi Consejo e con ciertas personas de los nuevamente convertidos...fue acordado que, para lo que al bien de los dichos nuevamente convertidos cumple...que de aquí en adelante ninguno de los nuevamente convertidos puedan degollar ni degüellen carne...[sino que] donde viven nuevamente convertidos, sean los cristianos viejos, e ninguno de los nuevamente convertidos puedan | \& 2

3
4 <br>
\hline
\end{tabular}





|  |  |  | 180 | que era que ninguno de los dichos nuevamente convertidos viejos $[s i c]^{981}$ las matasen en esta manera | 2 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | 180 | donde no pudiese haber carniceros cristianos viejos, que las degollase un carnicero de los dichos nuevamente convertidos sin ningunas ceremonias, salvo por la orden y manera que lo hacían los cristianos viejos | 3 |
|  |  |  | 181 | di licencia y facultad a los nuevamente convertidos para que cada uno pudiese matar las aves...con tanto que nos las matase con ceremonia morisca | 4 |
|  |  |  | 181 | los dichos nuevamente convertidos [asked for clarification] | 5 |
|  |  |  | $181$ | porque en las partes donde no hubiere carnicero habrán por bien que el cristiano viejo les degüelle | 6 |
|  |  |  | $181$ | Que en los lugares do hubiere cristianos viejos, aunque no sea ninguno de ellos carnicero, mando que los dichos cristianos viejos maten las dichas carnes, e si los tales cristianos viejos no quisiesen matarlas | 7 |
|  |  |  | 181 | en los lugares sonde no hubiere cristianos viejos, que el carnicero de los nuevos las mate en presencia del clérigo del lugar | 8 |
| 17 | 9 JUN 1514 | Sínodo de Guadix, A.18, 182-184 | 182 | [Indoctrination and instruction of new Christians in Huescar and Castillejar.] |  |
|  |  |  |  | que los cristianos nuevos...fuesen industriados e doctrinados en nuestra santa de católica e hiciesen e cumpliesen lo que los buenos cristianos deben e son obligados a cumplir y dexen sus malas ceremonias moriscas | 1 |

[^281]

|  |  |  | 184 | salvo cuando alguno de los nuevamente convertidos viniere por vino | 13 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 18 | 19 AUG 1515 | Sínodo de Guadix, A.19, 185-186 | 185 | [Queen Joanna re: drunkenness of new Christians] he sido informada que algunos de los nuevamente convertidos...a causa del mucho vino que beben se embriagan...e los cristianos viejos se burlan de ellos | 1 |
| 19 | 27 JAN 1517 | Sínodo de Guadix, A.20, 186-187 | $\begin{aligned} & 186 \\ & 186 \\ & 186 \end{aligned}$ | [taxes related to zambras] <br> cómo en tiempo de moros había... un derecho morisco llamado tarcón, el cual dicho derecho se llevaba por razón de las zambras ${ }^{982}$ <br> dar gracia a los dichos moros que se convirtiesen usando con ellos como verdaderos cristianos, les hicieron merced de les mandar quitar todos los derechos moriscos, que no se usan ni llevan, fue vuelto el dicho derecho tarcón que por razón de las dichas zambras e bodas e desposorios se llevan en tiempo de los dichos moros e asimismo se lleva agora siendo cristianos. | 2 <br> 3 |
| 20 | 11 MAR 1518 | Sínodo de Guadix, A.21, 187-188 <br> see also, Sínodo de Guadix, A.22, 189, on the same subject | 188 | [Re: the right to monies from zambras received by Fernando Morales] <br> hicieron merced a Fernando de Morales el Fistelí, nuevamente convertido a nuestra santa fe católica, de ciertos derechos que solían pagar en tiempo de moros los juglares e zambreros | 1 |

[^282]\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \& \& \& 188 \& los derechos e servidumbres que en tiempo de moros se solían llevar nos suplicaron...mandásemos a revocar la dicha merced \& 2 \\
\hline 21 \& 2 SEP 1521 \& Sínodo de Guadix, A.23, 189-190 \& 189 \& \begin{tabular}{l}
[Re: sale of wine] \\
por razón que de causa de venderse el vino...en bodegones, hay muchos inconvenientes, acogiéndose en ellos moriscos e otras personas mal vinientes, donde se emborrachan e riñen e hay cuestiones e los moriscos no entienden no entienden en sus haciendas...
\end{tabular} \& 1 \\
\hline 22 \& 25 AUG 1523 \& Sínodo de Guadix,
A.24, 190-191 \& \begin{tabular}{l}
190 \\
190 \\
190 \\
191 \\
191
\end{tabular} \& \begin{tabular}{l}
[by Francisco Nuñez Muley on behalf of the newly converted regarding godparents] \\
por sí y en nombre de los nuevamente convertidos...hizo relación \\
su Provisión por la cual mandaron que no se puedan ser padrino ni madrina de ninguno de los dichos nuevamente convertidos...salvo cristianos viejos \\
en algunas villas e lugares de las alcarias no hay cristianos viejos, de necesidad han de ir a otras partes a buscarlos, y que los tales cristianos viejos...no quieren ir a lo susodicho sin que se lo paguen muy bien \\
que en algunas de las dichas alcarias no hay cristiano viejo mandásemos proveer mandando que los dichos nuevamente convertidos e cualique de ellos pudiesen ser e fuesen padrinos...pues que ellos ya eran cristianos e tornados a nuestra santa fe católica
\end{tabular} \& 2
3

4
5 <br>
\hline
\end{tabular}





|  |  |  | 198 | mandaron que así los vecinos de Rabarhidar, como de barrio nuevo, e para todos los otros cristianos nuevos de dicha ciudad, se les da e señala por enterramientos la ermita de San Marcos...para que en ellas se puedan enterrar e entierren, con tanto que los cristianos nuevos cubran e aderecen la dicha ermita...a costa de los dichos cristianos nuevos. | 2 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 29 | 7 DEC 1526 | Sínodo de Guadix, A.31, 198-205 <br> Also in Organización de la Iglesia, A.8, 298-305. |  | [Implementation of recommendations after the Council called by Charles] |  |
|  |  |  | 198 | los nuevamente convertidos de ella [Granada]...habiendo recibido agua del bautismo de Espíritu Santo | 1 |
|  |  |  | 199 | contra nuestra santa fe católica siguiendo su dañada secta primera de Mahoma | 2 |
|  |  |  | 199 | para que los nuevamente convertidos de moros no tuviesen ocasión | 3 |
|  |  |  | 199 | seguían la dañada secta de Mahoma y sus errores y ceremonias | 4 |
|  |  |  | 199 | los nuevamente convertidos | 5 |
|  |  |  | 200 | lo que toca a las ánimas de los nuevamente convertidos de moros | 6 |
|  |  |  | 200 | las causas que tocaren al dicho santo oficio, así contra los dichos nuevamente convertidos de moros | 7 |
|  |  |  | 201 | los daños que los nuevamente convertidos han recibido | 8 |
|  |  |  | 201 | vivir algunas personas entre los nuevamente convertidos. | 9 |
|  |  |  | 201 | que ninguno de los nuevamente convertidos no tengan...esclavos moros | 10 |
|  |  |  | 201 | que no tengan por esclavos ningún cristiano negro ni blanco | 11 |



[^283]|  |  |  | $203$ | prohibido que los nuevamente convertidos de moros...tengan armas | 26 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | 203 | ni den licencia a ningún morisco, aunque sea su vasallo | 27 |
|  |  |  | 203-4 | llevan a los nuevamente convertidos de moros farda e otros derechos para consentirles que usen de alguna costumbre morisca | 28 |
|  |  |  | $204$ | los nuevamente convertidos de moros...no se pueden pasar a vivir de unos lugares a otros | 29 |
|  |  |  | $204$ | los dichos nuevamente convertidos no quieren comer carne si no es degollada por mano de alguno de ellos | 30 |
|  |  |  | $204$ | no degüelle la carne ninguno de los nuevamente convertidos de moros | 31 |
|  |  |  | $204$ | los dichos nuevamente convertidos hacen muchos casamientos con dispensaciones | 32 |
|  |  |  | $204$ | que algunos de los nuevamente convertidos se llaman nombres y sobrenombres de moros | 33 |
|  |  |  | $205$ | tiene agora nombre o sobrenombre que suene a moro, lo quite...y tome otros nombres de cristiano | 34 |
|  |  |  | $205$ | que cualquier de los nuevamente convertidos fuere contra lo contenido de este capítulo, este diez días en la cárcel | 35 |
|  |  |  | 205 | y hacen a los nuevamente convertidos tomar bulas por fuerza | 36 |
| 30 | 10 DEC 1526 | Moriscos e Indios,A.9, 139-148 | 139 | [Implementation of recommendations after the Council called by Charles] <br> fui informado que los nuevamente convertidos de él habían hecho y cometido e de cada día hacían e cometían muchas | 1 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |



[^284]

[^285]



\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \& \& \& \[
\begin{aligned}
\& 214 \\
\& 215 \\
\& 215
\end{aligned}
\] \& \begin{tabular}{l}
conocerán los nuevamente convertidos que tienen ellos libertad para ordenar su testamento... \\
ven algunos agravios que diz que reciben los nuevamente convertidos \\
avisaren de agravios que se hagan a los dichos nuevamente convertidos, en lo que toca a personas eclesiásticas...
\end{tabular} \& \begin{tabular}{l}
4 \\
5 \\
6
\end{tabular} \\
\hline 34 \& 1529 \& Epistolario Gaspar de Ávalos, A.2. 209210 \& 209 \& \begin{tabular}{l}
[Writing about the many threats to the kingdom] \\
Mucho se debe temer salir a coyuntura que quedan en estos reynos [sic.] más de cincuenta mil personas para tomar armas de los nuevamente convertidos de moros, andando los de África...
\end{tabular} \& 1 \\
\hline 35 \& 22 FEB 1530 \& \begin{tabular}{l}
Sínodo de Guadix, \\
A.34, 215-216
\end{tabular} \& \[
215
\]
\[
215
\] \& \begin{tabular}{l}
[Regarding newly converted women who had been wearing old Christian clothing but have begun wearing Moorish clothing.] \\
que las mujeres e hijas de los mudéjares nuevamente convertidos...siempre anduvieron en hábito de cristianos viejos, trayendo sus tocas e sayas e mantos de paño, en lo cual daban buen exemplo a los otros nuevamente convertidos, han tomado el hábito morisco por conformarse con las moriscas de esa ciudad \\
los cristianos viejos que las compraron, las traxeron a estos reinos de Castilla y las convirtieron a nuestra santa fe y les mostraron la doctrina cristiana, e las mujeres en habito de cristianas viejas, y después acá todas se han rescatado y vuelto a los dichos lugares, en los cuales han estado en hábito de cristianas viejas hasta que, de poco tiempo a esta parte, lo han dexado y se han vuelto a poner el morisco, y de la
\end{tabular} \& 1

2 <br>
\hline
\end{tabular}






|  |  |  | $224$ | mandase que les fuesen guardadas las dichas honras...que se guardan y deben guardar a los cristianos viejos... | 7 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | 224/25 | y como cristianos viejos mandase que no se les reparta farda ni otros servicios de los que se reparten entre los cristianos nuevamente convertidos, en que no pagan ni contribuyen los cristianos viejos... | 8 |
|  |  |  | $225$ | se daría causa que todos los cristianos nuevos se casen con los cristianos viejos, y cesaría la comunicación de moriscos y se les olvidaría su secta y ceremonias... | 9 |
|  |  |  | $225$ | que porque muchos cristianos viejos pobre se van a las alquerías a vivir entre los moriscos y es vezan nuestra santa fe católica y se quieren casar con las hijas de los cristianos viejos, mandásemos que los dichos cristianos viejos gocen de rozas y montes y otras cosas... | 10 |
|  |  |  | 225 | que se debía conceder a los cristianos nuevos de este reino que se casasen con hijas de cristianos viejos, e a cristianos viejos con hijas de cristianos nuevos...que se hará mucho fruto para el aumento de nuestra santa fe católica... | 11 |
| 44 | $1530^{988}$ | Sínodo de Guadix, A.43, 226-234 |  | [Instructions given by Archbishop Gaspar de Avalos to Canon Núñez as a result of the recent visitation] |  |
|  |  |  | 226 | salud de estas ánimas que me fueron encomendadas... | 1 |
|  |  |  | $227$ | la grande diferencia que hay de las cosas que son menester y hay acá a las que hay y son menester en Castilla. | 2 |
|  |  |  | 228 | para que miren mucho lo que conviene proveer para la salud de las ánimas de los de aquel obispado y el señor obispo, | 3 |

[^286]


|  |  |  | 231 | y que los padres o hermanos de las nuevas cristianas, que por el semejante se casasen con cristianos viejos, gozasen del mismo privilegio | 21 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 45 | 10 MAR 1532 | Sínodo de Guadix, A.44, 234 | $234$ $234$ | [Regarding the music, song, and dances of the newly converted.] <br> Por parte de los cristianos nuevos...que los días pasados fue por Nos mandado que no se juntasen a tañer y cantar y bailar...a causa de que cantaban algunos cantares que nombraban a Mahoma... <br> poner pena a los que cantaren cantares a Mahoma | 2 |
| 46 | 12 NOV 1532 | Sínodo de Guadix, A.45, 235-237 | 235 <br> 235 <br> 235 <br> 236 <br> 236 <br> 236 | [That only old Christians can work in the baths; and restrictions on Sundays and Feast days for new Christians] que los bañadores y bañadoras que hubiese en los baños que hay en ese reino fuesen cristianos e cristinas viejas e no hubiese en ellos ningunos cristianos nuevos... <br> e todavía diz que van los cristianos nuevos los domingos antes de misa... <br> persona ninguna fuese los días de fiesta a los baños antes de misa... <br> mandamos que las personas que hubieran de servir en los dichos baños sean cristianos viejos, e cristianas viejas para las mujeres, y que ninguno de los nuevamente convertidos... <br> ...que en los baños que en ese reino hubiere ni en ninguno de ellos sirvan cristianos nuevos ni cristinas nuevas... <br> mandamos que ninguno ni algunos de los nuevamente convertidos, así hombres como mujeres, no vayan a los baños los domingos ni fiestas de guardar antes de misa... | 2 3 4 4 5 |


|  |  |  | 236 | ...e bien de las ánimas de los cristianos nuevos | 7 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 47 | 1532 | Epistolario de Gaspar de Ávalos, A.4, 214-216 | 215 <br> 215 <br> 215/ 6 <br> 216 <br> 216 <br> 216 | [Instructions to the Abbot of Ugíjar] <br> Yren direys a su magestad como viven muchos de los cristianos nuevos...y los yndiçios evidentes que ay para creer que en sus coraçones se estan moros como antes... <br> para remedio de tanto mal convenía sacar de entre esta gente los alfaquíes que fueron en tiempo de moros y otras personas sabias en su seta... <br> [even if not punished in the kingdom]...sino mandalle salir desta tierra <br> los que quedasen que tenemos por cierto que en quinze o veinte años no se acordaran desta mata seta y serían mejores cristianos que los cristianos viejos <br> que se sigue grande perjuicio a las personas que compran hazienda destos nuevamente convertidos <br> paresçen los moradores moros sin rey | 1 <br> 2 <br> 3 <br> 4 <br> 5 <br> 6 |
| 48 | Early 1530s | Sínodo de Guadix, A.46, 237-243 | 240 | [Instructions given by Archbishop Gaspar de Avalos to the Reverend Doctor Utiel; first half is all about the Diocesan needs including the founding of a university, absent clergy and the newly converted, etc.] <br> [para el colegio] dexó Su Majestad los cuatrocientos mil maravedís de juro, en recompense de los habices que lleva, que estaban en tiempos de moros dedicados para enseñar a los niños en su mala secta...pues, aquello estaba aplicado para enseñar niños moros, se convirtiese en enseñarles lo que tocaba a nuestra santa fe católica... | 1 |


$\left.\begin{array}{|l|l|l|l|l|l|}\hline & & & & \begin{array}{l}\text { ganaría toda esta gente nuevamente convertida porque se les } \\ \text { quitaría la esperanza de pasarse allá... } \\ \text { El segundo que no ternan los moros de la tierra pensamiento } \\ \text { de pasarse en barcos hurtados...lo qual les estorva que no sean } \\ \text { tan buenos cristianos como serian o a los menos procurarían } \\ \text { de pareçerlo sino tuviesen esperança de pasarse. } \\ \text { y todos aquellos lugares que están despoblados se poblarían de } \\ \text { cristianos viejos... }\end{array} & 2\end{array}\right\}$




[^287]




|  |  |  | 257 | si lo que se pide es justo y bueno y cosa que conviene al servicio de Dios y la conversión de los de aquel reino y a la seguridad de él... | 20 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | 258 | ...todos los que se convirtieron después que se ganó Granada... | 21 |
|  |  |  | 258 | decir que del perdón gocen los que se convirtieron después que se ganó Granada y sus descendientes...[pero sería injusto] habrán algunos que se convirtieron antes que se ganase Granada [y sus descendientes] | 22 |
|  |  |  | $258$ | [Q.] que se haga lo mismo con los cristianos nuevos mudéjares que viven a fuera del reino de Granada... | 23 |
|  |  |  | 258 | [A.] Que visto lo que resultare con los dichos cristianos nuevos de moros del reino de Granada, se podrá mejor entender en lo que toca a los mudéjares de estos reinos de Castilla. | 24 |
|  |  |  | 259 | hacer en esta coyuntura para aquietar y pacificar los ánimos de los de aquel reino... | 25 |
| 65 | 11 JAN 1544 | Sínodo de Guadix, <br> A.55, 259-260 | $\begin{aligned} & 259 \\ & 259 \end{aligned}$ | [Response of Marquee of Mondéjar to the items of 1539 and the responses by the Inquisition and Royal letter] |  |
|  |  |  |  | sobre el negocio de los nuevamente convertidos | 1 |
|  |  |  |  | es cosa justa y que se puede conceder y de ellos se seguirá gran seguridad para aquel reino y quietud para las conciencias y enmiendas para la vida de los nuevamente convertidos... [se concede una gracias de 25 ó 30 años sin confiscación ni penas pecuniarias] | 2 |


|  |  |  | 259 | lo que pienso que se podrá acabar con los moriscos <br> concediéndoles lo que el Consejo de la Inquisición ha <br> apuntado... <br> En lo que toca a los mudéjares del reino de Castilla... | 3 <br> 66 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |





| $\omega_{\omega}^{\omega}$ |  |  |  | 263 | No consientan que algun christiano viejo de veinte años abaxo biua a soldada ni more con christiano nueuo, ni les permita comprar moro cautiuo | 21 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  | 275 | assi mismo a de mostrar a los christianos nueuos las ceremonias de la missa como esta en su instrucion. | 22 |
|  |  |  |  | 277 | No an de hazer extorsiones ni malos tratamientos a los nueuamente conuertidos | 23 |
|  |  |  |  | 342 | Lo que los nueuos christianos an de mandar en sus testamentos... | 24 |
|  |  |  |  | 345 | Lo que toca a los enterramientos de los nueuos christianos se contiene en el titulo "De su instruction" | 25 |
|  |  |  |  | 346 | por quanto estos nueuos christianos usan dellos como de ceremonia de moros...[mandamos] todos assi christianos nueuos como viejos se entierren dentro de las iglesias. | 26 |
|  |  |  |  | 354 | e si fuere christiano nueuo que pague donde pagare la farda de los veinte mil ducados. | 27 |
|  |  |  |  | 385 | Item statuimos y mandamos que en las iglesias de christianos viejos como se leyere padrón... | 28 |
|  |  |  |  | 386 | mandamos a los christianos viejos que offrescan siempre en las missas...y en los lugares y parrochias de christianos nueuos sean los primeros, para que de ellos tomen exemplo... | 29 |
|  |  |  |  | 386 | ...ni compella a persona alguna, aunque sea de los christianos nueuos que ofresca... | 30 |
|  |  |  |  | 389 | [Bautismo]...que dentro de los ocho días que los niños nacieren los lleuen a la iglesia a baptizar no auiendo justo impedimeento, excepto los niños de los christianos nueuos, los quales no de baptizen en $3,5,8$, ni trezeno día, si no fuere | 31 |




|  |  |  | 430 | No biuan los christinaos nueuos apartados de sus mujeres sin licencia... | 50 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | 430 | Pogase esta constitución general a christianos viejos y con pena, y particularmente hable con christianos neuuos... | 51 |
|  |  |  | 443 | No consientan que los beneficiados o curas hechen penas por su propia auctoridad y las executen a los cristinos nueuos... | 52 |
|  |  |  | 443 | Informense si los nuevos cristianos guardan las ceremonias... | 53 |
|  |  |  | 454 | Mandamos...no impingan nueuas impussiciones a sus feligreses, en especial a los cristinaos nueuos que les dan dadiuas... | 54 |
|  |  |  | 463 | Los curas no permitan que las mujeres de los christinos nueuos o otra gente, quando fuere a confessar, lleuen almuersos o meriendas a la iglesia. | 55 |
|  |  |  | 468 | Si los nueuos christianos estando descomulgados, fueren a oyr missa a otras parrochias... | 56 |
| 75 | 1566 | Sínodo de Guadix, A.60, 273-274 |  | [portion from Luis del Mármol who wrote a History of the Rebellion.] |  |
|  |  |  | 273 | dentro de tres años de como estos capítulos fuesen publicados, aprendiesen los moriscos a hablar la lengua castellana... | 1 |
|  |  |  | 273 | Cuanto al hábito se mandó que no se hiciesen de nuevo marlotas, almalafas, calzas, ni otra suerte de vestido de los que usaban en tiempos de moros, y que todo lo que se cortase e hiciese, fuese a uso de cristianos. | 2 |
|  |  |  | 273 | Y porque no se perdiesen de todo punto los vestidos moriscos... | 3 |



| ${ }_{\infty}^{\omega}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |



|  |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & 167 \\ & 168 \\ & 169 \end{aligned}$ | En el arzobispado ay vacos quasi todos los beneficios...por muerte de los que los tenian a quien los moros mataron en el alzamiento general... <br> Pero las que mas an perdido por averlas los moros robado sus casas y... <br> ...y también los estan [desiertos] los de los lugares de la vega y sierra que eran de moriscos. | 2 3 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 79 | 1571 | Iglesia de Granada, A.28, 170-172 | 170 <br> 171 <br> 171 <br> 171 | [Letter from the Cabildo of Granada to the president of Castilla] <br> se pueden comutar las azienda reyces de moriscos tasadas en precio moderado... <br> ni cogido los frutos y los ganados los robaron y destruyeron los moros. <br> que se diçen habiçes que eran de la mezquita mayor de los moros... <br> Y en las demás haçienda de habiçes, por averse llevado los moriscos que la abran arrendado y no averse podido cultivar las heredades... | 1 2 3 4 |
| 80 | 1 JUL 1574 | Iglesia de Granada, A.29, 173-174 |  | [Letter regarding the economic status of the churches in Granada after the rebellion] |  |
| 81 | $\begin{aligned} & 1579 \\ & 1573 \end{aligned}$ | Organización de la Iglesia, A.15, 326330 <br> Also in Moriscose Indios, A.7, 131-135 and A.8, 137-138 | $\begin{aligned} & 329 \\ & 329 \end{aligned}$ | [Regarding the donation by Juan de Albotodo to the Jesuits] <br> [los Albotodos] son descendientes de los naturales deste reyno y han bivido siempre como christianos viejos ansí en sus costumbres, vestidos y trato... <br> ni ser culpados en el trato de la rebelión y levantamiento | 1 2 |



## Appendix 2: Phrase Tallies

| Phrase | Tally | Num. of Docs. | Brief Notes (Ref.) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| NEWLY CONVERTED |  |  |  |
| Newly converted - nuevamente convertidos | 120 | 39 | $3.8,8.4,9.1-3,10.2,10.4(x 5), 10.5,11.1-$ <br> 2, 11.3(x2), 12.1, 13.1, 14.1-2, 14.5-6, <br> 15.1, 16.1-5, 17.2-7, 17.9, 17.11-13, <br> 20.1, 22.1-2, 22.5-8, 23.1-2, 23.4-5, <br> 23.9-10, 23.12-13, 29.1, 29.5, 29.8-10, <br> 29.13-14, 29.17-18, 29.24, 29.30, <br> 29.32-33, 29.35-36, 30.1-3, 30.14-15, <br> 30.23, 30.25, 30.28(x2), 30.29, 31.2, <br> 31.4, 33.1, 33.3-6, 35.1, 37.1, 38.1, <br> 38.4, 38.9, 39.1, 40.1-2, 40.4, 41.1-2, <br> 42.1, 42.3, 43.1, 43.6, 46.4, 46.6, 47.5, <br> 48.2, 50.1, 55.1, 58.8, 58.12, 61.1, <br> 62.1, 63.5, 63.6, 64.1, 64.4. 64.6, 65.12, 68.2, 74.23 |
|  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |
| Newly converted of Moors - nuevamente convertidos de moros | 17 | 7 | 29.3, 29.6-7, 29.26, 29.28-29, 29.31, |
|  |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & 30.13,30.20,34.1,58.1-2,58.6,63.1- \\ & 2,71.1,74.1 \end{aligned}$ |
|  | 2 | 2 | 51.1, 54.1 |
| nuevamente convertido |  |  | 51.1, 54.1 |
| TOTAL | 139 | 43 |  |


| NEW CHRISTIANS <br> New Christians - cristianos/ as nuevos/ as | 95 | 20 | $\begin{aligned} & \text { 2.1-2, 7.1-2, 17.1, 17.10, 24.1-2, 27.1, } \\ & \text { 27.4(x2), 28.1, 28.2(x3), 30.26, } \\ & 30.29(\mathrm{x} 2), 38.2,38.4(\mathrm{x} 2), 38.5-6,38.8, \\ & 42.2(\mathrm{x} 2), 43.9,43.11(\mathrm{x} 2), 44.7,44.21, \\ & 45.1-2,46.5(\mathrm{x} 2), 46.7,47.1,49.1, \\ & 56.1(\mathrm{x} 2), 58.9,58.14,67.1,68.3-5, \\ & 74.5,74.8-12,74.14-17,74.18(\mathrm{x} 3), \\ & 74.19-22,74.24-25,74.26(\mathrm{x} 2), 74.27, \\ & 74.29-32,74.35-37,74.38(\mathrm{x} 2), 74.39- \\ & 41,74.40-41,74.43-44,74.46(\mathrm{x} 2), \\ & 74.47-56 \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Christians newly converted - cristianos nuevamente convertidos | 1 | 1 | 43.8 |
| New Christians of Moors - cristianas/ os nuevas/ os de moras/ os | 4 | 3 | 29.22, 58.4, 58.16, 64.24 |
| The new ones - los nuevos/ as | 4 | 3 | 16.8, 44.3, 74.11, 74.13 |
| TOTAL | 104 |  |  |
| New Christians of Jews - cristianos nuevos de judíos | 1* | 1 | *Ommited from the total 58.2 |
| Christian converted from Moor - Cristiano convertido de moro | 1 | 1 | 73.1 |
| indoctrinate all-los doctrinen a todos | 1 | 1 | 30.24 |
| Faithful Christians...newly converted - fieles cristianos...nuevamente convertidos | 1 | 1 | 31.2 |
| Children of the Christians...of the newly converted - hijos de los cristianos...de los nuevamente convertidos | 1 | 1 | 31.3 |
| The Christians...the newly converted - los cristianos...los nuevamente convertidos | 1 | 1 | 31.5 |


| The Christians...newly converted - los cristianos...nuevamente convertidos | 1 | 1 | 31.6 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ```MUDEJARS \\ Newly converted Mudejars - mudéjares nuevamente convertidos \\ New Christians of Mudejars - cristianos nuevos de mudéjares \\ Mudéjares (used as Muslim) \\ Mudéjar (used as Christian)``` | $\begin{aligned} & 2 \\ & 2 \\ & 8 \\ & 8 \\ & 1 \end{aligned}$ | 2 2 4 1 | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Specifically using Mudéjar to refer to non- } \\ & \text { Granadans. } 35.1,36.1 \\ & 61.7,64.23 \\ & 8.1-5,14.3,38.6,64.24,65.4 \\ & 74.15 \end{aligned}$ |
| OLD CHRISTIANS <br> Old Christians - cristianos viejos | 118 | 25 | 9.1, 9.3, 10.1-2, 10.4, 10.5(x2), 10.6-7, <br> 11.1, 11.3, 13.2(x2), 14.2-3, 14.8, <br> 15.1-2, 16.3(x2), 16.6, 16.7(x3), 16.8, <br> 17.7, 17.10. 22.2, 22.3(x2), 22.4, 22.6, <br> 23.2,23.3, 23.6-9, 23.11-12, 19.12, <br> 29.21, 30.3-6, 30.8-9, 30.17-18, 30.28, <br> 30.29(x2), 35.2, 38.4(x2), 38.6, <br> 42.2(x2), 43.1, 43.2(x3), 43.3-4, <br> 43.5(x2), 43.7, 43.8(x2), 43.9, <br> 43.10(x2), 43.11(x2), 44.3, 44.12, <br> 44.20-21, 46.1(x2), 46.4(x2), 48.2, <br> 48.4(x2), 51.3, 61.4, 64.10, 64.12(x2), <br> 64.13, 74.3-4, 74.6-7, 74.11, 74.13, <br> $74.15,74.18(x 2), 74.21,74.26,74.28-$ <br> 29, 74.32-34, 74.42, 74.45, 74.46(x4), <br> 64.51, 76.5, 76.17, 81.1 |
| Not newly converted of moor nor jew - no nuevamente convertido de moro ni judío | 1 | 1 | 9.3 |



| like Christians, since they were - como Cristiano, pues lo eran new Christians...because they are Christians - cristianos nuevos...porque son cristianos since these are Christians - pues estos son cristianos they would be better Christians than the old Christians - Serian mejores cristianos que los cristianos viejos | $\begin{aligned} & 1 \\ & 1 \\ & 1 \\ & 1 \end{aligned}$ | 1 1 | $\begin{aligned} & 27.1 \\ & 27.2 \\ & 27.3 \\ & 62.2 \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| REFERING TO NEW CHRISTIANS <br> Natives - naturales <br> Said neighbors - dichos vecinos <br> Good and faithful Christians - buenos y fieles cristianos <br> Good Christians - buenos cristianos <br> These people - esta gente <br> The said converted - los dichos convertidos <br> These converted ones - estos convertidos <br> The confessed - confesos <br> Catholic descendants - descendientes católicos | 26 <br> 1 <br> 3 <br> 4 <br> 2 <br> 1 <br> 1 <br> 2 <br> 1 | 5 1 1 3 4 1 1 1 | ```44.8, 74.2-4, 74.6-7, 76.1-2, 76.4, 76.6-7, 76.9-10, 76.12-13, 76.15-16, 76.18-21, 76.24, 81.1, 81.4, 82.3 4.2 9.1, 10.3, 13.2 14.5, 17.1, 51.2, 63.4 44.9, 44.18 37.2 53.1 60.1(x2) 63.4``` |
| OLD AND NEW CHRISTIANS <br> los cristianos, así viejos como nuevos todos los cristianos viejos e cristianos nuevos de judíos e mudéjares <br> cristianos viejos con nuevos | 1 1 1 | 1 1 1 | $\begin{aligned} & 30.16 \\ & 30.21 \\ & 30.29 \end{aligned}$ |


| CHRISTIAN PRACTICES <br> Christian name - nombre de Cristiano <br> Manner of the Christians - manera de los cristianos <br> costume of old christians - hábitos de cristianos viejos | $\begin{aligned} & 2 \\ & 7 \\ & 5 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 2 \\ & 6 \\ & 2 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 29.34,30.11 \\ & 3.14-15,4.8,14.1,75.2 \\ & 35.1,35.2(\mathrm{x} 2), 35.3,36.1 \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| NEW CHRISTIANS ARE MOORS <br> worse with our faith than when they were Muslim - muy peores con nuestra santa fe que cuando eran moros. <br> many are worse than before - muchos de ellos estan peores que de antes | 1 1 | 1 1 | 44.4 <br> 44.16 |
| They have little of Christian to show - poca muestra que tienen de cristiano | 1 | 1 | 44.18 |
| Their hearts are as Muslim as before - sus corazones se están tan moros como antes | 1 | 1 | 47.1 |
| They seem as Moor citizens without their king - parescen los moradores moros sin rey | 1 | 1 | $47.6$ |
| They have always been until that day Moors and were never Christians - que siempre han sido hasta aquel día moros y que nunca fueron cristianos | 1 | 1 | 62.2 |
| MOROS <br> Moors - moros/ as | 22 | 16 | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Moor is primarily used as Muslim } \\ & 1.1,3.1-4,3.17-18,5.1,6.2,17.2,19.2, \\ & 29.23,29.25,30.12,31.1,44.17,48.1, \\ & 50.2,51.2,58.15,63.3,68.1 \end{aligned}$ |
| Things of the Moors - cosas de los moros | 1 | 1 | 11.1 |
|  | 4 | 2 | 61.5(x2), 64.14(x2) |


| In the manner of the Moors - a la manera de los moros | 2 | 2 | 11.3, 14.2 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Name or nickname of Moor - nombre o sobrenombre de moro | 6 | 5 | 17.8, 29.33-34, 44.19, 74.35, 75.8 |
| Sect of the Moors - secta de los moros | 4 | 4 | 58.2, 63.7, 64.16, 74.46 |
| Signs of the Moors - señales de moros | 1 | 1 | 44.18 |
| General conversion of the Moors - conversion general de los moros | 1 | 1 | 43.1 |
| Rites and ceremonies of the Moors - ritos y ceremonias de moros | 6 | 6 | $30.23,37.1,58.3,64.17,74.26,76.16$ |
| Customs of the Moors - costumbres de los moros | 1 | 1 | 64.18 |
| Moro as morisco | 4 | 2 | 78.1-2, 79.2-3 |
| Time of the Moors - Tiempo de moros | 15 | 11 | Refers to a time before 1492 or when they were still Muslim; Compare with Doc. 66 (dowry) from 1469 |
|  |  |  | $\begin{gathered} 3.9,10.1-2,11.2,16.1,19.1,19.3,20.1-2, \\ 27.1,44.10,47.2,48.1,75.2,75.5 \end{gathered}$ |
| clothing...from the time that you were not Christians habitos...del tiempo que no érades cristianos | 1 | 1 | 39.2 |
| Moorish Fees - Derechos Moriscos | 8 | 3 | Refers to Moorish fees (rights/ exemptions or responsibility of the Moors). After baptism they no longer have these "derechos moriscos" $3.4-6,4.2-3,4.5,19.1,19.3$ |
| SLAVES |  |  |  |
| Captive Moor - moro cautivo | 1 | 1 | 74.21 |



| Moorish pillows - almohadas moriscas (in a dowry) <br> TOTAL | 1 <br> $\mathbf{3 5}$ | 1 | 69.1 |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :--- |
| Marlotas | 2 | 2 | $12.2,69.3$ |
| Almalafas | 10 | 6 | $14.4,14.6-7,15.1,29.18-19,33.2,38.3$, <br> $75.2,75.4$ |
| Face covering | 10 | 5 | $14.4,14.6,14.8,25.1-3,29.18,29.20$, <br> $75.4,76.13$ |

## Bibliography

## Collections of Primary Texts Analyzed in this Thesis

## Peninsula

1554 Guadix Synod. Antonio Gallego y Burín, ed. Los Moriscos del Reino de Granada según el Sínodo de Guadix de 1554. Granada: Universidad de Granada, 1968.
1565 Provincial Council of Granada. Ignacio Pérez de Heredia y Valle, ed. El Concilio Provincial de Granada en 1565. Edición crítica del malogrado concilio del arzobispo Guerrero. Publicaciones del Instituto Español de Historia Eclesiástica. Subsidia 26. Roma: Iglesia Nacional Española, 1990.
Archbishop Gaspar de Ávalos. Rafael Marín López. Un epistolario del arzobispo de Granada Gaspar de Ávalos (BN. Ms. 19419): estudios, regesta, documentos. Granada: Editorial Universidad de Granada, 2006.
Archivo Holland and Biblioteca Zayas. Rodrigo de Zayas, ed. Los moriscos y el racismo de estado: Creación, persecución y deportación (1499-1614). Córdoba: Editorial Almuzara, 2006. Les Morisques et le racisme d'État. Paris: La Différence, 1992.
Moriscos e Indios. Antonio Garrido Aranda, ed. Moriscos e Indios: Precedentes Hispánicos de la Evangelización en México. Ciudad de México: Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, 1980.
Memorandum of 1567. Francisco Núñez Muley (c. 1492-1570). A Memorandum for the President of the Royal Audiencia and Chancery Court of the City and Kingdom of Granada (1567). Edited and translated by Vincent Barletta. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 2007.
Organización de la Iglesia. Antonio Garrido Aranda, ed. Organización de la Iglesia en el Reino de Granada y su proyección en Indias, Siglo XVI. Sevilla: Universidad de Sevilla, 1979.

## New Spain

1555 and 1565 Mexican Provincial Councils. Concilios Provinciales Primero y Segundo, celebrados en la muy noble, y muy leal ciudad de México. Presidiendo el llmo. Y Rmo. Señor D. F. Alonso de Montúfar en los años 1555 y 1565. Dalos a luz el llmo. Sr. D. Francisco Antonio Lorenzana, Arzobispo de esta Santa Metropolitana Iglesia.
1585 Mexican Provincial Council. Luis Mártinez Ferrer, ed. Decretos del concilio tercero provincial mexicano (1585). Edición histórico-crítica y estudio preliminar. 2 Vols. Zamora Michoacán, México: Universidad Pontificia de la Santa Cruz.
Appendices to First and Second Mexican Councils. Francisco Guerra (1770), Apéndice á los Concilios primero, y segundo mexicanos.

## Other Primary Texts

Aquinas, Thomas. Summa Theologica II-II Q. 10 Art. 12 and III Q. 68 Art. 10.
Benedict XIII. Etsi doctoris gentium (agasint the Jews) 11 May 1415.
Benzoni, Girolamo. Historia del Mondo Nuovo, 1565.
Cervantes de Salazar, Francisco (16th c.) Crónica de la Nueva España. México: Porrúa, 1985.

Cortés, Hernán (1485-1547). Hernán Cortés: Letters from México. Revised Edition. Edited and translated by Anthony Pagden. New Haven and London: Yale University Press, 1986.
Covarrubias y Orozco, Sebastián de (1539-1613). Tesoro de la lengua castellana o española (1611). Edited by Felipe C. R. Maldonado, revised by Manuel Camarero. Nueva Biblioteca de Erudición y Crítica. Madrid: Editorial Castalia, 1995.

Díaz del Castillo, Bernal (c. 1492-c. 1586). Historia verdadera de la conquista de la Nueva España.
Eulogius, Documentum martyriale, Memoriale sanctorum, and Liber apologeticus martyrum. Found in PL, España Sagrada, and Corpus scriptorium Muzarabicorum. The Corpus scriptorium Muzarabicorum, edited by Juan Gil, 2 vols. Madrid: Instituto Antonio de Nebrija, 1973.
Gregory I, Pope. Epistle I.43.
Hippolytus. Burton Scott Easton, ed. The Apostolic Tradition of Hippolytus. Hamden, Conn: Archon Books, 1970.
Isidore of Seville. Etymologies, trans. Stephen A. Barney, et al., with the collaboration of Muriel Hall. Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 2006; and De ecclesiasticis officiis, trans. and intro. by Thomas L. Knoebel. New York: Newman Press, c2008.
Justin Martyr. First Apology (c.155) found in Ante-Nicene Fathers, Vol. 1. Edited by Alexander Roberts, James Donaldson, and A. Cleveland Coxe. Translated by Marcus Dods and George Reith. (Buffalo, NY: Christian Literature Publishing Co., 1885.) Revised and edited for New Advent by Kevin Knight. <http:/ / www.newadvent.org/ fathers/ 0126.htm>. Accessed 11 March 2014.
Lateran IV: Canon 68—on Jews. Online on Medieval Sourcebook from H. J. Schroeder, Disciplinary Decrees of the General Councils: Text, Translation and Commentary 78-127. St. Louis: B. Herder, 1937.
López de Gómara, Francisco (c. 1511-c. 1566). Historia general de Indias (1553).
Mármol Carvajal, Luis del. Historia del Rebelión y Castigo de los moriscos del Reino de Granada (1600).

Mendieta, Jerónimo de (1525-1604). Historia eclesiástica Indiana. Edited by Joaquín García Icazbalceta (1870). México: Porrúa, 1980.

Nicholas V (r. 1447-1455) Humani generis inimicus. 24 September 1449.
Sandóval, Prudencio de (c. 1560-1620), Historia de la vida y hechos del Emperador Carlos V, ed. Carlos Seco Serrano, Biblioteca de Autores Españoles, 1955-56, 3 vol. Madrid: BAE: Ediciones Atlas, 1955.
Santa Cruz, Alonso de, Crónica de los reyes católicos (hasta ahora inédita), ed. Juan de Mata Carriazo (Sevilla, 1951).
Schroeder, H. J. Disciplinary Decrees of the General Councils: Text, Translation and Commentary. St. Louis: B. Herder, 1937, 78-127. Accessed 26 July 2013 http://www.fordham.edu/halsall/source/lat4-c68.asp.
Strong, James. Strong's Exhaustive Concordance of the Bible. Nashville: Abingdon Press, 1890.

## Secondary Works

Abellán, José Luis. "La polémica de Sánchez Albornoz con Américo Castro." In Sánchez Albornoz a debate: Homenaje de la Universidad de Valladolid con motivo de su centenario. Edited by Reina Pastor de Togneri, 45-52. Valladolid: Universidad de Valladolid, Secretariado de Publicaciones, 1993.
Abi Ayad, Ahmed. "La representación de los Moriscos en la literatura del siglo de oro." In Actes du VIIIe Symposium International d'Estudes Morisques sur: Images des Morisques dans la littérature et les arts, 15-23. Zaghouan: Fondation Temini pour la Recherche Scientifique et l'Information, 1999.
Akeley, T. C. Christian Initiation in Spain, c.300-1100. London: Darton, Longman \& Todd, 1967.

Alpert, Michael. Crypto-Judaism and the Spanish Inquisition. New York: Palgrave, 2001.

Amelang, James S. Parallel Histories: Muslims and Jews in Inquisitorial Spain. Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press, 2013.
Ashcroft, Bill, Gareth Griffiths and Helen Tiffin, eds. The Empire Writes Back: Theory and Practice in Post-Colonial Literatures, 2nd ed. London and New York: Routledge, 2002.
Baldovin, John F., S.J. "Hippolytus and the Apostolic Tradition: Recent Research and Commentary." Theological Studies 64 (2003): 520-542.
Barletta, Vincent, ed. A Memorandum for the President of the Royal Audiencia and Chancery Court of the City and Kingdom of Granada (1567). Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 2007.
Barrios Aguilera, Manuel. La invención de los libros plúmbeos: fraude, historia y mito. Granada: Universidad de Granada, 2011.
$\qquad$ . "El Sacromonte de Granada y la religiosidad contrarreformista." In La religiosidad popular y Almería (actas), 17-37, ed. J. Ruiz Fernández and V. Sánchez Ramos. Almería: Instituto de Estudios Almerienses, 2004.

Barrios Aguilera, Manuel and Mercedes García Arenal, eds. Los Plomos del Sacromonte: Invención y Tesoro. Valencia, Granada y Zaragoza: Universidad de Valencia, 2006.
Barton, Simon and Peter Linehan, eds. Cross, Crescent and Conversion: Studies on Medieval Spain and Christendom in Memory of Richard Fletcher. Leiden and Boston: Brill, 2008.
Baudot, Georges. Utopia and History in Mexico: The First Chroniclers of Mexican Civilization (1520-1569). Boulder: University of Colorado Press, 1995.
Beeks, Robert. Etymological Dictionary of Greek. Leiden and Boston: Brill, 2010.
Bernabé Pons, Luis F. "Una visión propicia del mundo: España y los moriscos de Granada." In Averroes dialogado: Y otros momentos de la interacción cristianomusulmana en España e Italia, ed. André Stoll, 89-137. Kassel: Edition Reichenberger, 1998.
Bhabha, Homi K. The Location of Culture. With a new preface. London and New York: Routledge, 2004.
$\qquad$ . "The Other Question...: Homi K. Bhabha Reconsiders the Stereotype and Colonial Discourse." Screen 24, no. 6 (1983): 18 -36
$\qquad$ . "The Commitment to Theory." New Formations 5 (Summer 1988): 5-23.
$\qquad$ . "Cultural Diversity and Cultural Differences." In The Post-Colonial Studies Reader, 155-157, ed. Bill Ashcroft, Gareth Griffiths, and Helen Tiffin. London and New York: Routledge, 1995.
Bloch, Marc. Feudal Society. Translated by L.A. Manyon. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1961.
$\qquad$ . The Historian's Craft. Translated by Peter Putnam with a preface by Peter Burke. Manchester: Manchester University Press, 2002.
Boeglin, Michel. "Between rumor and resistance the Andalucían Morisco 'Uprising' of 1580." In The Conversos and Moriscos in Late Medieval Spain and Beyond: Volume One: Departures and Change. Studies in Medieval and Reformation Traditions 141, ed. Kevin Ingram, 211-242. Leiden and Boston: Brill, 2009.
Bogle, Emory C. Islam: Origin and Belief. Austin: University of Texas Press, 1998.
Boxer, C. R. The Church Militant and Iberian Expansion, 1440-1770. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1978.
Braudel, Fernand. On History. Translated by Sarah Matthews. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1980.
$\qquad$ . The Mediterranean and the Mediterranean World in the Age of Philip II. Translated by Siân Reynolds. First Harper Torchbook Edition. New York: Harper \& Row, 1972-1973.
Braun, Willi and Russell T. McCutcheon, eds. Guide to the Study of Religion. London and New York: Cassell, 2000.

Brierley, Robert, SJ. "Redefining Catholicism: Trent and Beyond." In Reform and Expansion, 1500-1660. The Cambridge History of Christianity 6, 145-161, ed. R. Po-Chia Hsia. Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 2007.

Bulliet, Richard W. Conversion to Islam in the medieval period: an essay in quantitative history. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1979.
Bunes Ibarra, Miguel Ángel de. Los moriscos en el pensamiento histórico: historiografía de un grupo marginado. Madrid: Cátedra, 1983.

Burman, Thomas E. Religious Polemic and the Intellectual History of the Mozarabs. Leiden and New York: Brill, 1994.

Burns, Kathryn. "Unfixing Race." In Rereading the Black Legend: The Discourses of Religious and Racial Difference in the Renaissance Empires, ed. Margaret R. Greer, Walter D. Mignolo, and Maureen Quilligan, 188-204. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 2007.

Burns, R. I. "Mudejar Parallel Societies: Anglophone Historiography and Spanish Context, 1975-2000." In Christians, Muslims, and Jews in Medieval and Early Modern Spain: Interactions and Cultural Change, ed. Mark D. Meyerson and Edward D. English, rev. ed. Notre Dame Conferences in Medieval Studies 8. Notre Dame: University of Notre Dame Press, 2000.

Burshatin, Israel. "The Moor in the Text: Metaphor, Emblem, and Silence." Critical Inquiry 12, no. 1, "Race," Writing, and Difference (Autumn 1985): 98-118.
$\qquad$ . "Playing the Moor: Parody and Performance in Lope de Vega's El Primer Fajardo." PMLA 107, no. 3 (1992): 556-578.
. "Written on the Body: Slave or Hermaphrodite in Sixteenth-Century Spain." In Queer Iberia: Sexualities, Cultures, and Crossings from the Middle Ages to the Renaissance, ed. Josiah Blackmore and Gregory S. Hutcheson, 420456. Durham and London: Duke University Press, 1999.
. "El imaginario morisco y la Inquisición." In Actes du VIIIe Symposium International d'Estudes Morisques sur : Images des Morisques dans la littérature et les arts, 55-64. Zaghouan: Fondation Temini pour la Recherche Scientifique et l'Information, 1999.
. "Elena Alias Eleno: Genders, Sexualities, and "Race" in the Mirror of Natural History in Sixteenth-Century Spain." In Gender Reversals and Gender Cultures: Anthropological and Historical Perspectives, ed. Sabrina Ramet, 105-122. London: Routledge, 1996.
$\qquad$ . "Interrogating Hermaphroditism in Sixteenth-Century Spain." In Hispanisms and Homosexualities, Sylvia Molloy and Robert McKee Irwin, eds., 3-18. Durham: Duke University Press, 1998.

Camp, C. Kathryn. "A Divided Republic: Moriscos and Old Christians in SixteenthCentury Granada." Ph.D. diss., University of Michigan, 2001.
Cano, Pedro Damián. Al-Ándalus: el Islam y los pueblos ibéricos. Madrid: Sílex, 2012/13.

Cardaillac, Louis. Moriscos y cristianos: un enfrentamiento pnbolémico, 1492-1640. Second Edition. México, D.F.: Fondo de Cultura Económica, 2004.
Carr, Matthew. Blood and Faith: The Purging of Muslim Spain. New York and London: The New Press, 2009.
Carrasco, David. "Aztec Religion." In Encyclopedia of Religion, 2nd ed., ed. Lindsay Jones, Mircea Eliade, and Charles J. Adams, 1:715-720. Detroit: Macmillan Reference USA, 2005. ER.
. "Aztec Religion." In Religion Past \& Present: Encyclopedia of Theology and Religion. 4th ed., ed Hans Dieter Betz, Don S. Browning, et al., 1:533-536. Leiden and Boston: Brill, 2007. RPP.
Carrasco Urgoiti, María Soledad. "Apuntes sobre el calificativo 'morisco' y algunos textos que lo ilustran." In Averroes dialogado: Y otros momentos de la interaccion cristiano-musulmana en España e Italia, ed. André Stoll, 187-209. Kassel: Edition Reichenberger, 1998.
Casey, James. "Moriscos and the Depopulation of Valencia." Past \& Present 50 (February 1971): 19-40.
Castillo Fernández, Javier. "Luis Enríquez Xoaida, el primo hermano morisco del Rey Católico (análisis de un caso de falsificación histórica e integración social)." Sharq al-Andalus 12 (1995): 235-53.
Castro, Américo. España en su historia: cristianos, moros y judíos. Buenos Aires: Editorial Losada, 1948.
__ The Structure of Spanish History. Translated by Edmund L. King. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1954.
$\qquad$ . The Spaniards: An Introduction to their History. Translated by Willard F. King and Selma Margaretten. Berkeley, Los Angeles and London: University of California Press, 1971.
Chadwick, Owen. The Reformation. The Pelican History of the Church 3. Middlesex: Penguin Books, Ltd., 1964.
Chalmeta, Pedro. Invasión e islamización: la sumisión de Hispania y la formación de al-Ándalus. Jaén: Universidad de Jaén, 2003.
Chejne, Anwar G. Islam and the West. The Morisco: A Cultural and Social History. Albany: State University of New York Press, 1983.
Childs, Peter, and Patrick Williams. An Introduction to Post-Colonial Theory. London and New York: Prentice Hall/Harvester Wheatsheaf, 1997.
Christian, William A., Jr. Local Religion in Sixteenth-Century Spain. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1981.
Christys, Ann. Christians in al-Andalus, 711-1000. Richmond: Curzon, 2001.
Clendinnen, Inga. Aztecs: An Interpretation. Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1991.

Cline, Sarah L., ed., trans. The Book of Tributes: Early Sixteenth-Century Nahuatl Censuses from Morelos. Los Angeles: UCLA Latin American Center, 1993.
$\qquad$ "The Spiritual Conquest Reexamined: Baptism and Christian Marriage in Early Sixteenth-Century México." The Hispanic American Historical Review 73, no. 3 (August 1993): 453-480.
Colbert, Edward P. "The Martyrs of Córdoba (850-859): A Study of the Sources." Ph.D. diss., Catholic University of America, 1962.
Coleman, David. Creating Christian Granada: Society and Religious Culture in an OldWorld Frontier City, 1492-1600. Ithaca: Cornell University Press, 2003.
Collins, Roger. Early Medieval Spain: Unity in Diversity, 400-1000. New Studies in Medieval History, ed. Maurice Keen. London and Basingstoke: The Macmillan Press Ltd., 1983.
$\qquad$ . Early Medieval Europe 300-1000. New York: St. Martin’s Press, 1991.

## $\qquad$ . The Arab Conquest of Spain, 710-197. A History of Spain, ed. John Lynch.

 Oxford: Basil Blackwell Ltd., 1989Coogan, Michael David, Marc Zvi Brettler, Carol A. Newsom, and Pheme Perkins. The New Oxford Annotated Bible: New Revised Standard Version: with the Apocrypha: An Ecumenical Study Bible. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2010.
Coope, Jessica A. The Martyrs of Cordoba: Community and Family Conflict in an Age of Mass Conversion. Lincoln: University of Nebraska, 1995.
Cope, R. Douglas. The Limits of Racial Domination: Plebeian Society in Colonial México City, 1660-1720. Madison: The University of Wisconsin Press, 1994.

Cowans, Jon, ed. Early Modern Spain: A Documentary History. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2003.
Cramer, Peter. Baptism and Change in the Early Middle Ages, c.200-c.1150. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1993.
Crosby, Alfred W., Jr. The Columbian Exchange: Biological and Cultural Consequences of 1492. Westport: Greenwood Press, 1972.
Dadson, Trevor J. Tolerance and Coexistence in Early Modern Spain: Old Christians and Moriscos in the Campo de Calatrava. Colección Tamesis. Serie A: Monografías 334. Suffolk and Rochester: Tamesis, 2014.
$\qquad$ . "Official Rhetoric versus Local Reality: Propaganda and the Expulsion of the Moriscos." In Rhetoric and Reality in Early Modern Spain, ed. Richard J. Pym, 1-24. Suffolk and Rochester: Tamesis, 2006.
Dandelet, Thomas James. Spanish Rome, 1500-1700. New Haven and London: Yale University Press, 2001.
DeGuzmán, María. Spain's Long Shadow: The Black Legend, Off-whiteness, and Anglo-American Empire. Minneapolis and London: University of Minnesota Press, 2005.

Dodds Pennock, Caroline. Bonds of Blood: Gender, Lifecycle and Sacrifice in Aztec Culture. Series Early Modern History: Society and Culture, Rob Houston and Edward Muir, eds. Hampshire and New York: Palgrave Macmillan, 2008.

Domínguez Ortiz, Antonio and Bernard Vincent. Historia de los moriscos. Vida y tragedia de una minoría. Madrid: Editorial Revista de Occidente, 1978.

Durkheim, Emile. Elementary Forms of Religious Life. In Durkheim on Religion: A Selection of Readings with Bibliographies 1, translated by W.S.F. Pickering and Jacqueline Redding. Cambridge: James Clark \& Co., 1975.
Edwards, John. The Spain of the Catholic Monarchs, 1474-1520. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers, 2000.

Ehlers, Benjamin. Between Christians and Moriscos Juan De Ribera and Religious Reform in Valencia, 1568-1614. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 2006.

Eliade, Mircea. The Sacred and the Profane: The Nature of Religion. Translated by Willard R. Trask. New York: Harper Torchbooks, 1961.

Elliott, J. H. The Old World and the New, 1492-1650. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1992.
$\qquad$ . Imperial Spain, 1469-1716. Reprint. London: Penguin Books, 1990.
$\qquad$ . Spain and its World 1500-1700: Selected Essays. New Haven and London: Yale University Press, 1989.
Episcopal Church. The Book of Common Prayer and Administration of the Sacraments and Other Rites and Ceremonies of the Church: Together with the Psalter or Psalms of David According to the Use of the Episcopal Church. New York: Church Hymnal Corp, 1979.
Espín, Orlando. "Popular Catholicism among Latinos." In Hispanic Catholic Culture in the U. S.: Issues and Concerns, Jay P. Dolan and Allan Figueroa Deck, S.J., eds., 308-59. Notre Dame: University of Notre Dame Press, 1994.

Fanon, Frantz, 1925-1961. Peau noire, masques blancs (1952). (Black Skin, White Masks. 1967.) Translated by Richard Philcox, 1st ed., new ed. New York: Grove Press, 2008.
$\qquad$ . Pour la révolution africaine. (Toward the African Revolution: Political Essays. 1969.) Translated by Haakon Chevalier. New Evergreen ed. New York: Grove Press, 1988.

Ferguson, Everett. Baptism in the Early Church: History, Theology, and Liturgy in the First Five Centuries. Grand Rapids: Wm. B. Eerdmans Publishing Co., 2009.
Fisher, J.D.C. Christian Initiation: Baptism in the Medieval West. London: SPCK, 1965.
Fletcher, Richard. The Conversion of Europe: From Paganism to Christianity, 371-1386 AD. London: Harper Collins Publishers, 1997.
. The Barbarian Conversion: From Paganism to Christianity. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1999.
$\qquad$ . "Reconquest and Crusade in Spain, c 1050-1150." Transactions of the Royal Historical Society, 5th Series, 37 (1987): 31-47.

Fuchs, Barbara. Mimesis and Empire: The New World, Islam, and European Identities. Cambridge Studies in Renaissance Literature and Culture 40. Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 2001.
$\qquad$ . Exotic Nation: Maurophilia and the Construction of Early Modern Spain. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2009.
. "Maurophilia and the Morisco Subject." In The Conversos and Moriscos in Late Medieval Spain and Beyond: Volume One: Departures and Change. Studies in Medieval and Reformation Traditions 141, Kevin Ingram, ed., 269-286. Leiden and Boston: Brill, 2009.
$\qquad$ . "The Spanish Race." In Rereading the Black Legend: The Discourses of Religious and Racial Difference in the Renaissance Empires, Margaret R. Greer, Walter D. Mignolo, and Maureen Quilligan, eds., 88-98. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 2007.
Galán Sánchez, Ángel. Los Mudéjares del Reino de Granda. Biblioteca Chronica Nova de estudios históricos 13. Granada: Universidad de Granada, Diputación Provincial de Granada, 1991.
$\qquad$ . Una sociedad en transición: los granadinos de mudéjares a moriscos. Granada: Editorial Universidad de Granada, 2010.
García Arenal, Mercedes. "Religious Dissent and Minorities: The Morisco Age." The Journal of Modern History 81, no. 4 (December 2009): 888-920.
$\qquad$ . "El problema morisco: propuestas de discusión." Al-Qantara: Revista De Estudios Arabes 13 (1992): 491-503.
García Arenal, Mercedes and Fernando Rodríguez Mediano. Un oriente español: Los moriscos y el Sacromonte en tiempos de contrarreforma. Madrid: Marcial Pons Historia, 2010.
. The Orient of Spain: Converted Muslims, The Forged Lead Books of Granada, and the Rise of Orientalism. Studies in the History of Religions 142. Leiden and Boston: Brill, 2013.
. "Jerónimo Román de la Higuera and the Lead Books of Sacromonte." In The Conversos and Moriscos in Late Medieval Spain and Beyond: Volume One: Departures and Change. Studies in Medieval and Reformation Traditions 141, Kevin Ingram, ed., 243-268. Leiden and Boston: Brill, 2009.
García Cárcel, Ricardo. "Los fántasticos relatos acerca de nuestra patria: la leyenda negra." Historia Social 3 (Winter 1989): 3-15.

García Fitz, Francisco. "Las minorías religiosas y la tolerancia en la edad media hispánica: ¿mito o realidad?" In Tolerancia y convivencia étnico-religiosa en la península ibérica durante la edad media, ed. Alejandro García Sanjuán. Huelva: Universidad de Huelva Publicaciones, 2003.

García Moreno, Luis A. "El Cristianismo en las Españas: los orígenes." In El concilio de Elvira y su tiempo, Manuel Sotomayor and José Fernández Ubiña, eds. Granada: Editorial Universidad de Granada, 2005.
García Olmo, Miguel Ángel. Las razones de la Inquisición Española: Una respuesta a la Leyenda Negra. Córdoba: Editorial Almuzara, 2009.
García Pedraza, Amalia. Actitudes ante la muerte en la Granada del siglo XVI. Los moriscos que quisieron salvarse, vol. 1. Granada: Universidad de Granada, 2002.

Garrido Aranda, Antonio. Moriscos e Indios: Precedentes Hispánicos de la Evangelización en México. 2nd ed. Ciudad de México: Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, 2013.
Gauchet, Marcel. The Disenchantment of the World: A Political History of Religion. Translated by Oscar Burge, New French Thought, Thomas Pavel and Mark Lilla, eds. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1997.
Geertz, Clifford. The Interpretation of Cultures. New York: Basic Books, 1973.
Gerber, Jane S. The Jews of Spain: A History of the Sephardic Experience. New York: The Free Press, 1992.

Gibson, Charles. Aztecs under Spanish Rule. Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1964.

Gil, Fernando. "Las 'juntas eclesiásticas' durante el episcopado de Fray Juan de Zumárraga (1528-1548): Algunas precisiones históricas." Teología (revista de la Facultad de Teología de la Pontificia Universidad Católica Argentina) 54 (1989): 7-34.
Gillespie, Jeanne Lou. Saints and Warriors: Tlaxcalan perspectives on the conquest of Tenochtitlan. New Orleans: University Press of the South, 2004.
Gilman, Stephen. "The Problem of the Spanish Rennaissance." In Studies in the Literature of Spain: Sixteenth and Seventeenth Centuries, Michael J. Ruggeris, ed. Brockport: State University of New York Press, 1977.
Goldenberg, David M., Curse of Ham: Race and Slavery in Early Judaism, Christianity, and Islam. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 2009.
Gómez Ruiz, Raúl. Mozarabs, Hispanics, and the Cross. Maryknoll: Orbis Books, 2007.

González Alcantud, José Antonio. El mito de al-Ándalus: orígenes y actualidad de un ideal cultural. Córdoba: Editorial Almuzara, 2014.
Goode, Joshua. Impurity of Blood: Defining Race in Spain, 1870-1930. Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press, 2009.
Graf, E. C. "When an Arab Laughs in Toledo: Cervantes's Interpellation of Early Modern Spanish Orientalism." Diacritics 29, no. 2 (Summer 1999): 68-85.
Greengrass, Mark. The Longman Companion to the European Reformation, c. 15001618. London and New York: Longman, 1998.

Greenleaf, Richard E. Zumárraga and the Mexican Inquisition, 1536-1543. Washington, DC: Academy of American Franciscan History, 1961.
Greer, Margaret R., et al. "Introduction." In Rereading the Black Legend: The Discourses of Religious and Racial Difference in the Renaissance Empires, Margaret R. Greer, Walter D. Mignolo, and Maureen Quilligan, eds., 1-26. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 2007.
Guichard, Pierre. Al-Andalus: 711-1492. Paris: Hachette Littératures, 2000.
Hamilton, Alastair. Heresy and Mysticism in Sixteenth-Century Spain. Toronto and Buffalo: University of Toronto Press, 1992.
Hamilton, Earl J. American Treasure and the Price Revolution in Spain, 1501-1650. Harvard Economic Studies, 43. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1934.

Hanke, Lewis. All Mankind is One: A Study of the Disputation between Bartolomé de Las Casas and Juan Ginés de Sepúlveda in 1550 on the Intellectual and Religious Capacity of the American Indians. DeKalb: Northern Illinois University Press, 1974.

Harris, A. Katie. From Muslim to Christian Granada: Inventing a City's Past in Early Modern Spain. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 2007.
Harvey, L. P. Islamic Spain, 1250-1500. Chicago and London: The University of Chicago Press, 1990.
. Muslims in Spain, 1500-1614. Chicago and London: The University of Chicago Press, 2005.

Hassig, Ross. Mexico and the Spanish Conquest. 2nd ed. Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 2006.
$\qquad$ . México and the Spanish Conquest. $1^{\text {st }}$ ed. Series Modern Wars in Perspective, ed. H. M. Scott and B. W. Collins. London and New York: Longman, 1994.
. Time, History, and Belief in Aztec and Colonial México. Austin: University of Texas Press, 2001.
Henderson, John B. The Construction of Orthodoxy and Heresy: Neo-Confucian, Islamic, Jewish, and Early Christian Patterns. Albany: State University of New York Press, 1998.

Herring, Hubert and Helen Baldwin Herring. A History of Latin America from the Beginnings to the Present, $3^{\text {rd }}$ ed. New York: Knopf, 1968.
Hillgarth, J. N. The Spanish Kingdoms, 1250-1516. 2 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1976-1978.
$\qquad$ . "Spanish Historiography and Iberian Reality." History and Theory 24, no. 1 (February 1985): 23-43.
$\qquad$ . The Mirror of Spain, 1500-1700: The Formation of a Myth. History, Languages, and Cultures in Spanish and Portuguese Worlds. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 2000.
$\qquad$ . The Visigoths in History and Legend. Studies and Texts 166. Toronto: Pontifical Institute of Mediaeval Studies, 2009.
Hitchcock, Richard. Mozarabs in Medieval and Early Modern Spain: Identities and Influences. Hampshire: Ashgate, 2008.
. Muslim Spain Reconsidered: From 711 to 1502. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press, 2014.
Hughes, Aaron W. Theory and Method in the Study of Religion: Twenty-Five Years On. Leiden and Boston: Brill, 2013.
Ingram, Kevin, ed. The Conversos and Moriscos in Late Medieval Spain and Beyond: Volume One: Departures and Change. Studies in Medieval and Reformation Traditions 141. Leiden and Boston: Brill, 2009.
Innis, Robert E., ed. Semiotics: An Introductory Anthology. Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1985.
Irigoyen García, Javier. "El problema morisco en Los baños de Argel, de Miguel de Cervantes: de renegados a mártires cristianos." Revista Canadiense de Estudios Hispánicos 32, no. 3 (Spring 2008): 421-438.
Jenner, Henry. "Mozarabic Rite." In The Catholic Encyclopedia. New York: Robert Appleton Company, 1911. Accessed 11 March 2014. http://www.newadvent.org/cathen/10611a.htm/.
Johnson, Maxwell E. "Christian Initiation." In The Oxford Handbook of Early Christian Studies, ed. Susan Ashbrook Harvey and David G. Hunter. Oxford and New York: Oxford University Press, 2008.
Juderías, Julián. "La leyenda negra y la verdad histórica." La llustración Española y Americana, 8, 15, 22, and 30 January, 8 February 1913.
$\qquad$ . La leyenda negra y la verdad histórica. Madrid: Tip. de la "Rev. de Arch., Bibl. y Museos," 1914.
Julian, Philippe. The Orientalists, European Painters of Eastern Scenes. Oxford: Phaidon, 1977.
Kamen, Henry. "Limpieza and the Ghost of Américo Castro: Racism as a Tool of Literary Analysis." Hispanic Review 64, no. 1 (Winter 1996): 19-29.
Tra "Toleration and Dissent in Sixteenth-Century Spain: The Alternative Tradition." The Sixteenth Century Journal 19, no. 1 (Spring 1988): 3-23.
. The Spanish Inquisition: a Historical Revision. New Haven: Yale University Press, 2001.
Katzew, Ilona. Casta Painting: Image of Race in Eighteenth-Century México. New Haven: Yale University Press, 2004.
$\qquad$ . "White or Black?: Albinism and Spotted Blacks in the eighteenth-century Atlantic World." In Envisioning Others: Race, Color, and the Visual Iberia and Latin America, Pamela A. Patton, ed., 142-186. Leiden and Boston: Brill, 2016.
Katzew, Ilona, ed. Una visión del México del siglo de las luces: la codificación de Joaquín Antonio de Basarás: Origen, costumbres y estado presente de mexicanos y filipinos, 1763. México: Landucci, 2006.
Keen, Benjamin. "The Black Legend Revisited: Assumptions and Realities." The Hispanic American Historical Review 49, no. 4 (November 1969): 703-719.
Kennedy, Hugh. Muslim Spain and Portugal: A Political History of al-Andalus. London and New York: Longman, 1996.
Kinder, A. Gordon. "Creation of the Black Legend: Literary Contributions of Spanish Protestant Exiles." Mediterranean Studies 6 (1996): 67-78.
Knowles, Murray and Rasamund Moon. Introducing Metaphor. London and New York: Routledge, 2006.
Ladero Quesada, Miguel Ángel. "Mudéjares and Repobladores in the Kingdom of Granada (1485-1501)." In Jews, Christians, and Muslims in the Mediterranean World after 1492, Alisa Meyuhas Ginio, ed. London and Portland: Frank Cass \& Co. Ltd, 1992.

Lamana, Gonzalo. "Of Books, Popes, and Huacas; or, The Dilemmas of Being Christian." In Rereading the Black Legend: The Discourses of Religious and Racial Difference in the Renaissance Empires, Margaret R. Greer, Walter D. Mignolo, and Maureen Quilligan, eds., 117-149. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 2007.
Lapeyre, Henri. Géographie de l'Espagne morisque. Paris: S.E.V.P.E.N., 1959.
Lea, Henry Charles. The History of the Moriscos: Their Conversion and Expulsion. Reprint. New York, Greenwood Press, 1968.
Levine Melammed, Renée. A Question of Identity: Iberian Conversos in Historical Perspective. Oxford and New York: Oxford University Press, 2004.
Lewis, Bernard. "The Historical Roots of Racism." The American Scholar 67, no. 1 (Winter 1998): 17-25.
___ "Some Observations on the Significance of Heresy in the History of Islam." Studia Islamica 1 (1953): 52.

Linehan, Peter. History of the Historians of Medieval Spain. Aldershot: Variorum, 1992.
Lockhart, James. The Nahuas after the Conquest: A Social and Cultural History of the Indians in Central México, Sixteenth through Eighteenth Centuries. Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1992.
$\qquad$ . Spanish Peru, 1532-1560: A Social History, 2nd ed. Madison: The University of Wisconsin Press, 1994.
Lomax, Derek W. The Reconquest of Spain. London and New York: Longman, 1978.

Longás Bartibás, Pedro. Vida religiosa de los moriscos. Madrid: E. Maestre, 1915.
Loomba, Ania. Colonialism/Postcolonialism, 2nd ed. Oxon and New York: Routledge, 2005.

Lopes Don, Patricia. "Franciscans, Indian Sorcerers, and the Inquisition in New Spain." Journal of World History 17, no. 1 (March 2006): 27-49.
López Baralt, Luce. Islam in Spanish Literature. From the Middle Ages to the Present. Leiden and Boston: Brill, 1992.
$\qquad$ . "Un morisco puertorriqueño, médico y alcalde de San Juan de Puerto Rico, en pleitos con Juan Ponce de León II." In collaboration with Josué Caamaño. La Torre (Revista de la Universidad de Puerto Rico. Tercera Época 12, no. 44-45 (April-September 2007): 335-364.
$\qquad$ . "¿Que imagen tenían los morisocs de si mismos?" In Actes du VIIIe Symposium International d'Estudes Morisques sur : Images des Morisques dans la litterature et les arts, 149-161. Zaghouan: Fondation Temini pour la Recherche Scientifique et l'Information, Zaghouan, 1999.
$\qquad$ . "La estética del cuerpo entre los moriscos del siglo XVI o de cómo la minoría perseguida pierde su rostro." In Les corps dans la societe espagnole de XVIe et XVIIe siegles. Colloque International Sorbonne: 5-8 octobre 1988, ed. Agustin Redondo, 335-348. Paris: Publications de la Sorbonne, 1990.
Love, Edgar F. "Marriage Patterns of Persons of African Descent in a Colonial México City Parish." The Hispanic American Historical Review 51, no. 1 (February 1971): 79-91.

Lyman, J. Rebecca. "Heresiology: The Invention of 'heresy' and 'schism'." In The Cambridge History of Christianity, Volume 2: Constantine to c.600, ed. Augustine Casiday and Frederick W. Norris, 296-313. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2007.
Lynch, John. Spain Under the Habsburgs. Volume 1: Empire and Absolutism 1516 1598. London: Oxford, 1969.

MacKay, Angus. "The Hispanic-Converso Predicament." Transactions of the Royal Historical Society 35 (1985): 159-179.
Maclaghlan, Colin M. and Jaime E. Rodríduez O., ed. The Forging of the Cosmic Race: A Reinterpretation of Colonial México. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1980.

Macquarrie, John. A Guide to the Sacraments. New York: Continuum, 1999.
Madariaga, Salvador de. The Rise of the Spanish American Empire. New York: Macmillan Company, 1947.
Maduro, Otto. Religion and Social Conflicts. Translated by Robert R. Barr. Maryknoll: Orbis Books, 1982.

Maravall Casesnoves, José Antonio. El concepto de España en la edad media. 4th ed. Madrid: Centro de Estudios Constitucionales, 1997.
Marchante-Aragón, Lucas A. "The King, the Nation, and the Moor: Imperial Spectacle and the Rejection of Hybridity in 'The Masque of the Expulsion of the Moriscos'." Journal for Early Modern Cultural Studies, 8, no. 1 (Spring-Summer, 2008): 98133.

Marín López, Rafael. La Iglesia de Granada en el siglo XVI: documentos para su historia. Granada: Universidad de Granada, 1996.
___ Un epistolario del arzobisp de Granada Gaspar de Ávalos (BN. Ms. 19419): estudios, regesta, documentos. Granada: Universidad de Granada, 2006.
Mariscal, George. "The Role of Spain in Contemporary Race Theory." Arizona Journal of Hispanic Cultural Studies 2 (1998): 7-22.
Márquez Villanueva, Francisco. El problema morisco (desde otras laderas). Madrid: Ediciones Libertarias, 1998.
Marshall, Peter. "The Other Black Legend: The Henrician Reformation and the Spanish People." The English Historical Review 116, no. 465 (February 2001): 31-49.
Martínez, François. Le permanence morisque en Espagne après 1609: discours et réalités. Ph.D. diss., Université Paul-Valéry-Montpellier III, 1997.
Martínez, María Elena. Genealogical Fictions: Limpieza de Sangre, Religion, and Gender in Colonial México. Stanford: Stanford University Press, 2008.
$\qquad$ . "The Black Blood of New Spain: Limpieza de Sangre, Racial Violence, and Gendered Power in Early Colonial México." The William and Mary Quarterly 61, no. 3 (July 2004): 479-520.
$\qquad$ . "The Language, Genealogy, and Classification of 'Race' in Colonial México." In Race and Classification: The Case of Mexican America, llona Katzew and Susan Deans-Smith, eds. Stanford: Stanford University Press, 2009, 25-42.
Martínez Góngora, Mar. "El vestido del morisco como signo de la diferencia en la "Expulsión de los moros de España" de Gaspar Aguilar." Revista Canadiense de Estudios Hispánicos 34, no. 3 (Spring 2010): 497-515.
Marx, Karl. Karl Marx: Early Writings. Translated and edited by T.B. Bottomore. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1963.
Mathewson Denny, Federick. An Introduction to Islam, 4th ed. Boston: Prentice Hall, 2011.

McConnell, Christian. "Baptism in Visigothic Spain: Origins, Development, and Interpretation." Ph.D. diss., University of Notre Dame, 2005.
McGrail, Peter. The Rite of Christian Initiation: Adult Rituals and Roman Catholic Ecclesiology. London and New York: Routledge, 2013.

McWillian, Joanne. "The Context of Spanish Adoptionism: A Review." In Conversion and Continuity: Indigenous Christian Communities in Islamic Lands, ed. Michael

Gervers and Ramzi Jibran Bikhazi, 75-88. Toronto: Pontifical Institute of Mediaeval Studies, 1990.
Mignolo, Walter D. Local Histories/Global Designs. Coloniality, Subaltern Knowledges and Border Thinking, 2nd ed. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 2012.
$\qquad$ . "Afterword: From Colonial Discourse to Colonial Semiosis." Dispositio 14, no. 36/38, Colonial Discourse (1989): 333-337.
$\qquad$ . "Colonial and Postcolonial Discourse: Cultural Critique or Academic Colonialism?" Latin Ameican Research Review 28, no. 3 (1993): 120-134.
$\qquad$ . "Epistemic Disobedience, Independent Thought and Decolonial Freedom." Theory, Culture \& Society 26, 7-8: 159-181.
. "Afterword: What Does the Black Legend Have to Do with Race?" In Rereading the Black Legend: The Discourses of Religious and Racial Difference in the Renaissance Empires, Margaret R. Greer, Walter D. Mignolo, and Maureen Quilligan, eds., 312-324. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 2007.

Milavec, Aaron. The Didache: Text, Translations, Analysis, and Commentary. Collegeville: Liturgical Press, 2004.

Milhou, Alain. "Desemitización y europeización en la cultura española desde la época de los Reyes Católicos hasta la expulsión de los moriscos." Cultura del Renaixement 11 (1993): 35-60.
Millet-Gérard, Dominique. Chrétiens mozarabes et culture islamique dans l'Espagne des VIIIe-IXe siècles. Paris: Etudes augustiniennes, 1984.

Mills, Kenneth, William B. Taylor and Sandra Lauderdale Graham, ed. Colonial Latin America: A Documentary History. Wilmington: SR Books, 2002.
Moliner Prada, Antonio, ed. La expulsión de los moriscos. Barcelona: NABLA Ediciones, 2009.
Monter, William. "Controles religiosos y sociales en los países germánicos en tiempos de las Reformas." Revista de la Inquisición 2 (1992): 121-33.
Moon, Silver and Michael Ennis. "The View of the Empire from the Altepetl: Nahua Historical and Global Imagination." In Rereading the Black Legend: The Discourses of Religious and Racial Difference in the Renaissance Empires, Margaret R. Greer, Walter D. Mignolo, and Maureen Quilligan, eds., 150-166. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 2007.
Moradiellos, Enrique. "Más allá de la Leyenda Negra y del Mito Romántico: el concepto de España en el hispanismo británico contemporáneo." Ayer 31. España: La Mirada del Otro (1998): 183-199.
Moraña, Mabel, Enrique Dussel, and Carlos Jáurequi, eds. Coloniality at Large: Latin America and the Postcolonial Debate. Latin America Otherwise: Languages, Empires, Nations, Walter D. Mignolo, Irene Silverblatt, and Sonia Saldívar-Hull, eds. Durham \& London: Duke University Press, 2008.

Morrison, Karl F. Understanding Conversion. Charlottesville and London: University Press of Virginia, 1992.
Mowbray, Donald. "Conversio ad bonum commutabile: Augustinian language of conversion in Medieval theology." In Christianizing Peoples and Converting Individuals, Guyda Armstrong and Ian N. Wood, eds., 283-294. Belgium: Brepols, 2000.
Munier, Charles, and Charles de Clercq. Concilia Galliae. Turnholti: Typographi Brepols Editores Pontificii, 1963. Accessed 21 October 2013. http://www.fourthcentury.com/arles-314-canons-to-sylvester/.
Munslow, Alun. Deconstructing History. 2nd. ed. London and New York: Routledge, 2006.
$\qquad$ . The Routledge Companion to Historical Studies. 2nd. ed. London and New York: Routledge, 2006.
National Council of Churches. New Revised Standard Version Bible. New York: National Council of Churches of Christ, 1989. NRSV.
Netanyahu, B. Toward the Inquisition: Essays on Jewish and Converso History in Late Medieval Spain. Ithaca and London: Cornell University Press, 1997.
. The Origins of the Inquisition in Fifteenth-Century Spain. New York: Random House, 1995.
Niremberg, David. Communities of Violence: Persecution of Minorities in the Middle Ages. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1996.
$\qquad$ . "Race and the Middle Ages: The Case of Spain and Its Jews." In Rereading the Black Legend: The Discourses of Religious and Racial Difference in the Renaissance Empires, Margaret R. Greer, Walter D. Mignolo, and Maureen Quilligan, eds., 71-87. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 2007.
O'Callaghan, Joseph F. A History of Medieval Spain. Ithaca: Cornell University Press, 1975.
. Reconquest and Crusade in Medieval Spain. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2003.
Olivera Serrano, César. "El poblamiento morisco del reino de Granda y los terremotos a fines de la Edad Media." In VI Simposio Internacional de Mudejarismo: Teruel, 16-18 de septiembre de 1993. Zaragosa: Centro de Estudios Mudéjares del Instituto de Estudios Turolenses, 1995.
Orquera, Yolanda Fabiola. "Race' and 'Class' in the Spanish Colonies of America: A Dynamic Social Perception." In Rereading the Black Legend: The Discourses of Religious and Racial Difference in the Renaissance Empires, Margaret R. Greer, Walter D. Mignolo, and Maureen Quilligan, eds., 167-187. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 2007.
Ortega y Gasset, José. España invertebrada: bosquejo de algunos pensamientos históricos. 9th ed. Madrid: Revista de Occidente en Alianza Editorial, 1998.
$\qquad$ . Obras completas. [Edición Fundación José Ortega y Gasset, Centro de Estudios Orteguianos]. Madrid: Taurus, 2004.
Otto, Rudolf. The Idea of the Holy: An inquiry into the non-rational factor in the idea of the divine and its relation to the rational. Translated by John W. Harvey. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1923.
Pagden, Anthony. The Fall of Natural Man: The American Indian and the Origins of Comparative Ethnology. New York: Cambridge University Press, 1982.
Parish, Helen Rand and Harold E. Weidman. Las Casas en México: historia y obra desconocidas. México: Fondo de Cultura Económica, 1992.
___ "The Presentation of Order: The School of Salamanca and the 'lus Naturae'." The Uncertainties of Empire. Variorum 3 (1994): 155-166.
Peñarroja Torrejón, Leopoldo. Cristianos bajo el Islam: los mozárabes hasta la reconquista de Valencia. Madrid: Gredos, 1993.
Perceval, José María. Todos son uno: arquetipos, xenofobia y racismo: la imagen del morisco en la monarquía española durante los siglos XVI y XVII. Almería: Instituto de Estudios Almerienses, 1997.
. "Asco y asquerosidad del morisco según los apologistas cristianos del Siglo de Oro." La Torre: Revista de la Universidad de Puerto Rico, Nueva Época 4, no. 13 (January-March, 1990): 21-47.
Pérez, Joseph. History of a Tragedy: The Expulsion of the Jews from Spain. Translated by Lysa Hochroth. Introduction by Helen Nader. In Hispanisms, Anne J. Cruz, ed. Urbana and Chicago: University of Illinois Press, 2007.
$\qquad$ . Los judíos de España. Madrid: Marcial Pons Historia, 2005.
Perry, Mary Elizabeth. The Handless Maiden: Moriscos and the Politics of Religion in Early Modern Spain. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 2007.
Perry, Mary Elizabeth and Anne J. Cruz, ed. Cultural Encounters: The Impact of the Inquisition in Spain and the New World. Berkeley, Los Angeles and Oxford: University of California Press, 1991.
Phelan, John Leddy. The Millennial Kingdom of the Franciscans in the New World. 2nd ed. rev. Berkeley and Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1970.
Phillips, Carla Rahn. "The Moriscos of La Mancha, 1570-1614." The Journal of Modern History 50, no. 2, On Demand Supplement (June 1978): D1067-D1095.
Phillips, Wendy E. "Representations of the Black Body in Mexican Visual Art: Evidence of an African Historical Presence or a Cultural Myth?" Journal of Black Studies 39, no. 5 (May 2009): 761-785.
Pike, Ruth. "An Urban Minority: The Moriscos of Seville." International Journal of Middle East Studies 2, no. 4 (October 1971): 368-377.
Pirenne, Henri. Mohammed and Charlemagne (1937). Mineola: Dover Publications, 2001.

Plaja, Fernando. La vida cotidiana en la España de la Inquisición. Madrid: Editorial EDAF, 1996.

Quinn, Patrick. "St. Thomas Aquinas' Theory of Conversion." In Christianizing Peoples and Converting Individuals, ed. Guyda Armstrong and lan N. Wood, 269-275. Belgium: Brepols, 2000.

Rabasa, José. Tell me the story of how I conquered you: elsewheres and ethnosuicide in the colonial Mesoamerican world. Austin: University of Texas Press, 2011. . "Thinking Europe in Indian Categories, or 'Tell Me the Story of How I Conquered You." In Coloniality at Large: Latin America and the Postcolonial Debate, Mabel Moraña, Enrique Dussel, and Carlos Jáurequi, eds. Latin America Otherwise: Languages, Empires, Nations, Walter D. Mignolo, Irene Silverblatt, and Sonia Saldívar-Hull, eds., 43-76. Durham \& London: Duke University Press, 2008.

Rahman, Fazlur. "Islam." In Encyclopedia of Religion, 2nd ed., Lindsay Jones, Mircea Eliade, and Charles J. Adams, eds., 7:4560-4691. Detroit: Macmillan Reference USA, 2005. ER.

Ravid, Benjamin. "The Forced Baptism of the Jews in Christian Europe: An Introductory Overview." In Christianizing Peoples and Converting Individuals, Guyda Armstrong and Ian N. Wood, eds., 157-167. Belgium: Brepols, 2000.
Rawlings, Helen. Church, Religion and Society in Early Modern Spain. New York: Palgrave, 2002.
$\qquad$ . The Spanish Inquisition. Malden and Oxford: Blackwell Publishing, 2006.

Ray, Jonathan. After Expulsion: 1492 and the Making of Sephardic Jewry. New York and London: New York University Press, 2013.
. "Beyond Tolerance and Persecution: Reassessing Our Approach to Medieval ‘Convivencia'." Jewish Social Studies, n.s., 11, no. 2 (Winter 2005): 118.

Ray, Jonathan, ed. The Jews of Medieval Iberia: 1100-1500. Boston: Academic Studies Press, 2012.
Real Academia Española. Diccionario de la lengua española. 23rd ed., Tricentenary Edition. Madrid: Real Academia Española; Barcelona: Espasa Libros, 2014. http://dle.rae.es.

Remensnyder, Amy G. "The Colonization of Sacred Architecture: The Virgin Mary, Mosques, and Temples in Medieval Spain and Early Sixteenth-Century México." In Monks and Nuns, Saints and Outcasts, Sharon Farmer and Barbara H. Rosenwein, eds., 189-219. Ithaca: Cornell University Press, 2000.

Ricard, Robert. The spiritual conquest of México: an essay on the apostolate and the evangelizing methods of the mendicant orders in New Spain, 1523-1572. Berkeley, Los Angeles and London: University of California Press, 1966.

Rivera Pagán, Luis N. A Violent Evangelism: The Political and Religious Conquest of the Americas. Louisville: Westminster/John Knox Press, 1992.
$\qquad$ . Essays from the margins. Eugene: Cascade, 2014.
Rodgers, Eammon, ed. Encyclopaedia of Contemporary Spanish Culture. New York: Routledge, 1999.
Rodríguez Salgado, M. J. "Civilized and Spanish: Multiple Identities in SixteenthCentury Spain." Transactions of the Royal Historical Society 6th ser., 8 (1998): 233-251.

Roest, Bert. "Converting the Other and Converting the Self: Double Objectives in Franciscan Educational Writings." In Christianizing Peoples and Converting Individuals, Guyda Armstrong and lan N. Wood, eds., 295-301. Belgium: Brepols, 2000.

Root, Deborah. "Speaking Christian: Orthodoxy and Difference in Sixteenth-Century Spain." Representations 23 (Summer 1988): 118-134.
Rorty, Richard M., ed. The Linguistic Turn: Essays in Philosophical Method, rev. ed. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1992.
Roth, Norman. Conversos, Inquisition, and the Expulsion of the Jews from Spain. Madison and London: The University of Wisconsin Press, 1995. . "The Jews of Spain and the Expulsion of 1492." Historian 55, no. 1 (1992): 17-30.

Rout, Jr., Leslie B. The African Experience in Spanish America: 1502 to the Present Day. London and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1976. . Jews, Visigoths, and Muslims in Medieval Spain: Cooperation and Conflict. Leiden and New York: Brill, 1994.

Rubiera Mata, María Jesús. "El enemigo en el espejo: percepción mutua de musulmanes y cristianos." Cristiandad e Islam en la edad media hispana. (XVIII Semana de Estudios Medievales, Najéra, del 30 de julio al 3 de agosto de 2007). Coordinated by José Ignacio de la Iglesia Duarte, 355-369. Logroño: Gobierno de la Rioja, Instituto de Estudios Riojanos, 2008.
. "Los moriscos como criptomusulmanes y la taqiyya." In Mudéjares y moriscos: cambios sociales y culturales: actas. (IX Simposio Internacional de Mudejarismo: Teruel, 12-14 de septiembre de 2002), 535-547. Teruel: Centro de Estudios Mudéjares, Instituto de Estudios Turolenses, 2004.
Rubiera Mata, María Jesús, and Mikel de Epalza. "Al-Andalus: Between Myth and History." History and Anthropology 18, no. 3 (September 2007): 269-273.
Safran, Janina M. "Identity and Differentiation in Ninth-Century al-Andalus." Speculum 76, no. 3 (2000): 573-598.
Said, Edward W. Orientalism. $25^{\text {th }}$ Anniversary Edition. With a new preface. New York: Vintage Books, 2004.
$\qquad$ Culture and Imperialism. 1st Vintage Books ed. New York: Vintage Books, 1994.
. "Orientalism." In The Post-Colonial Studies Reader. Bill Ashcroft, Gareth Griffiths, and Helen Tiffin, eds., 87-91. London and New York: Routledge, 1995.
Sánchez Albornoz, Claudio. España: un enigma histórico. 4 vols. 6th ed. Barcelona: Edhasa, 1991.
Saranyana, José Ignacio, Carmen José Alejos-Grau, et al. Teología en América Latina. Vol. 1 Desde los orígenes hasta la Guerra de Sucesión (1493-1715). Madrid: Iberoamericana; Frankfurt: Vervuert, 1999-2008.
Schwaller, John Frederick. The Church and Clergy in Sixteenth Century México. Albuquerque: University of New México Press, 1987.
$\qquad$ . Origins of Church Wealth in México: Ecclesiastical Revenues and Church Finances, 1523-1600. Albuquerque: University of New México Press, 1985.
$\qquad$ . "Franciscan Millennial Kingdom." In Iberia and the Americas: Culture, Politics, and History a Multidisciplinary Encyclopedia, J. Michael Francis, ed., 506-507. Santa Barbara: ABC-CLIO, Inc., 2006.

Schwaller, John Frederick, ed. The Church in Colonial Latin America. Jaguar Books on Latin America 21. Wilmington: Scholarly Resources, Inc., 2000.

Schwartz, Stuart B., ed. Victors and Vanquished: Spanish and Nahua Views of the Conquest of México. Boston: St. Martin's Press, 2000.
Serrano Martin, Eliseo. "La historiografía morisca." In La expulsión de los moriscos, Antonio Moliner Prada,ed., 297-320. Barcelona: NABLA Ediciones, 2009.

Silverblatt, Irene. "The Black Legend and Global Conspiracies: Spain, the Inquisition, and the Emerging Modern World." In Rereading the Black Legend: The Discourses of Religious and Racial Difference in the Renaissance Empires, Margaret R. Greer, Walter D. Mignolo, and Maureen Quilligan, eds., 99-116. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 2007.

Simonet, Francisco Javier. Historia de los mozárabes de España. 4 volumes. Madrid: Ediciones Turner, 1983.

Soria Mesa, Enrique. Los últimos moriscos: Pervivencias de la población de origen islámico en el reino de Granada (siglos XVII-XVIII). Bibliotecas de Estudios Moriscos 10. Valencia: Universidad de Valencia, 2014.

Soyer, Francois. Ambiguous Gender in Early Modern Spain and Portugal: Inquisitors, Doctors and the Transgression of Gender Norms. Leiden and Boston: Brill, 2012.

Spinks, Bryan D. Early and Medieval Rituals and Theologies of Baptism: From the New Testament to the Council of Trent. Burlington: Ashgate, 2006.
Stocking, Rachel L. Bishops, Councils, and Consensus in the Visigothic Kingdom, 589633. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press, 2000.

Stroumsa, Guy G. "Religious Dynamics between Jews and Christians." In The Making of the Abrahamic Religions in Late Antiquity, Guy G. Stroumsa, ed., 151. Oxford Studies in Abrahamic Religions. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2015.
Sweet, James H. "The Iberian Roots of American Racist Thought." The William and Mary Quarterly 54, no. 1 (January 1997): 143-166.
Tate, Robert B. Ensayos sobre la historiografia peninsular del siglo XV. Madrid: Gredos, 1970.
Taylor, Charles. "Foreword." In The Disenchantment of the World: A Political History of Religion by Marcel Gauchet. Translated by Oscar Burge. New French Thought, edited by Thomas Pavel and Mark Lilla. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1997.

Teja Casuso, Ramón. "«Exterea gentes»: relaciones con paganos, judíos y herejes en los cánones de Elvira." In El concilio de E/vira y su tiempo, edited by Manuel Sotomayor and José Fernández Ubiña, 220-ff. Granada: Editorial Universidad de Granada, 2005.
Tueller, James Blaine. "The Assimilating Morisco: Four Families in Valladolid prior to the Expulsion of 1610." Mediterranean Studies 7 (1998): 167-177.
$\qquad$ . "Good and Faithful Christians." PhD diss., Columbia University, 1997.
Turner, C. H. "Notes of the Apostolic Constitutions. Part II: The Apostolic Canons." The Journal of Theological Studies 16 (1915): 523-538.
Vicens Vives, Jaime. An Economic History of Spain. Collaboration with Jorge Nadal Oller. Translated by Frances M. López-Morillas. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1969.
Vincent, Bernard. Minorías y marginados en la España del siglo XVI. Translated by Marina Guillén. Granada: Diputación Provincial de Granada, 1987.
$\qquad$ . El río morisco. Valencia: Publicaciones de las Universidades de Valencia, 2006.

Waines, David. An Introduction to Islam. Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1995.
Weber, Max. From Max Weber: Essays in Sociology. Translated and edited by H.H. Gerth and C. Wright Mills. Oxon: Routledge, 1991.
Whaling, Frank, ed. Theory and Method in Religious Studies: Contemporary Approaches to the Study of Religion. Berlin and New York: Mouton de Gruyter, 1995.

Whitaker, E. C., and Maxwell E. Johnson. Documents of the Baptismal Liturgy, rev. and exp. ed. Collegeville: Liturgical Press, 2003.
Wiegers, Gerard. "Managing disaster: Networks of the Moriscos during the process of the expulsion from the Iberian Peninsula around 1609." Journal of Medieval Religious Cultures 36, no. 2 (2010): 141-168.

Wiles, M. F. "Triple and Single Immersion: Baptism in the Arian Controversy." Studia Patristica (Peeters) 30 (1997): 337-349.

Wolf, Kenneth Baxter. "Sentencia-Estatuto de Toledo, 1449." Medieval Texts in Translation, 2008. Accessed 22 May 2009 and 28 July 2013.
http://canilup.googlepages.com and http://ccdl.libraries.claremont.edu/u?/irw
"The Earliest Spanish Views of Islam." In Church History 55 (1986): 281293.
. Christian Martyrs in Muslim Spain. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1988.
. Conquerors and Chroniclers of Early Medieval Spain. Liverpool: Liverpool University Press, 1990.

Wright, A. D. Catholicism and Spanish Society under the Reign of Philip II, 1555-1598, and Philip III, 1598-1621. Studies in Religion and Society 27. Lewiston, Queenston, and Lampeter: The Edwin Mellen Press, 1991.
Zayas, Rodrigo de. Los moriscos y el racismo de estado: Creación, persecución y deportación (1499-1614). Córdoba: Editorial Almuzara, 2006.
. Les Morisques et le racisme d'État. Paris: La Différence, 1992.


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ The decree in Valencia was promulgated on 22 September 1609; for old and new Castile on 5 January (Valladolid), and Extremadura and La Mancha on 10 July 1610 (Aranda); for Granada, Murcia and Andalucía, 12 January 1610. See L. P. Harvey, Muslims in Spain, 1500 to 1614 (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 2005), 309-331. Henri Lapeyre shows that most of the expulsions occurred from September 1609 to September 1610: perhaps 243,000 of the 275,000 or more than $80 \%$. See Henri Lapeyre, Géographie de l'Espagne morisque (Paris: S.E.V.P.E.N., 1959), 175.

[^1]:    ${ }^{3}$ More than 150 documents in total.

[^2]:    4 "tri" refers to the religious differentiation between Jews, Muslims, and Christians; "bi" to the religious differentiation between Muslims and Christians.
    ${ }^{5}$ Which may be a consequence of the normalization of infant baptism since the fifth century, as discussed in Section 1.1, and later in Section 4.3.

[^3]:    ${ }^{6}$ See Barbara Fuchs, Exotic Nation: Maurophilia and the Construction of Early Modern Spain (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2009). Explored further in Section 2.3.
    ${ }^{7}$ Constructing the term "(over)use" is meant to denote both the use and overuse of the term in historiography. In many ways, the term is unavoidable; in other ways, it has been overused, and incorrectly so.

[^4]:    ${ }^{8}$ See L. P. Harvey, Muslims in Spain, 2. Robert Beeks, Etymological Dictionary of Greek (Leiden and Boston: Brill, 2010), 1:84. Def. Diccionario de la Real Academia Española, DRAE (2014 edition): moro, ra. Del lat. Maurus 'mauritano', y este del gr. Maũpos Maûros; propiamente 'oscuro', por alus. al color de su piel. 1. adj. Natural del África septentrional frontera a España. U.t.c.s. 2. adj. Perteneciente o relativo al África septentrional frontera a España o a los moros. 3. adj. Que profesa la religión islámica. U.t.c.s. 4. adj. Dicho de una persona: Musulmana, que habitó en España desde el siglo VIII hasta el XV. U.t.c.s. 5. adj. Perteneciente o relativo a la España musulmana del siglo VIII hasta el XV. 6. adj. Dicho de una persona: Musulmán de Mindanao y de otras islas de Malasia. U.m.c.s. 7. adj. Dicho de un caballo o de una yegua: De pelo negro, con una estrella o mancha blanca en la frente y calzado de una o dos extremidades. 8. adj. coloq. Dicho del vino: Que no está aguado, en contraposición al bautizado o aguado. 9. adj. coloq. Dicho de una persona, especialmente un niño: Que no ha sido bautizado. 10. adj. coloq. Dicho de un hombre: Celoso y posesivo, y que tiene dominada a su pareja. 11. adj. Cuba. Dicho de una persona mulata: De tez oscura, cabello negro lacio y facciones finas. 12. m. trigo moro. Accessed 4 January 2016. http://dle.rae.es/. See also Sebastián de Covarrubias y Orozco, Tesoro de la lengua castellana o española, $2 d$ and rev. ed. (ed. Felipe C. R. Maldonado, rev. Manuel Camarero in Nueva Biblioteca de Erudición y Crítica (Madrid: Editorial Castalia, 1995), 763: "Moro," Lat. Maurus, dicho asi de la provincia de Mauritania. Proverbio, A moro muerto gran lanzada; "Morisma," Multitud de moros o secta. "Moor" and "Morisma": accessed 2 September 2014. http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/Moor.
    ${ }^{9}$ The term "(re)gained" has been written in this manner to denote that there was a prior connotation that had not been recently used and was being reused; yet, it cannot ever fully be defined exactly as it had before. A similar intention exists for other terms that are constructed with the "re" in parenthesis: (re). The trans-Atlantic slave trade was primarily from sub-Saharan Africa which is not geographically co-terminus with

[^5]:    Mauretania. "Muslimness" and "Blackness" became conflated. The sub-Saharan African slave trade which intensified in the 1440-60s aided in the increased understanding and conflation of slavery with blackness. By the middle of the sixteenth century there would be very few white slaves (even if Muslim) in the peninsula or the New World. María Elena Martínez, "The Black Blood of New Spain: Limpieza de Sangre, Racial Violence, and Gendered Power in Early Colonial México," in The William and Mary Quarterly 61, no. 3 (July 2004): 486. Martínez cites an article by James H. Sweet, "The Iberian Roots of American Racist Thought," in The William and Mary Quarterly 54, no. 1 (January 1997): 155, 157. María Elena Martínez writes in "Language, Genealogy, and Classification of 'Race’ in Colonial México" in Race and Classification: The Case of Mexican America, ed. Ilona Katzew and Susan Deans-Smith (Stanford: Stanford University Press, 2009), 31-33: the Hamitic myth "equate[s] the perpetuity of the 'blemishes' of Jewish and Muslim ancestry...this religious-cum-racial construction of blackness as ineffaceable strongly influenced the Sistema de Castas"; also, Antonio Garrido Aranda, Moriscos e Indios: Precedentes Hispánicos de la Evangelización en México, 1st ed., (Ciudad de México, México: Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, 1980), 126-127.
    ${ }^{10}$ Sebastián de Covarrubias y Orozco, Tesoro, MORISCOS, 763: "Los convertidos de moros a la fe católica, y si ellos son católicos, gran merced les ha hecho Dios y a nosotros también." L. P. Harvey in Muslims in Spain uses the definition from DRAE, "Dícese de los moros que al tiempo de la restauración de España se quedaron en ella bautizados" (3). DRAE (2014 edition): "morisco, ca: De moro e -isco. 1. adj. moro (perteneciente al África septentrional). 2. adj. Dicho de una persona: Musulmana, que, terminada la Reconquista, era bautizada y se quedaba en España. U.t.c.s. 3. adj. Perteneciente o relativo a los moriscos. 4. adj. En la América colonial, nacido de mulato y española, o de español y mulata. U.t.c.s. Accesed 4 January 2016. http://dle.rae.es/.
    ${ }^{11}$ See L. P. Harvey, Muslims in Spain, 2-3.
    ${ }^{12}$ L. P. Harvey, Muslims in Spain, 6.
    ${ }^{13}$ See Section 3.2. See also usage \#4 for morisco in footnote 10 above. The Sistema de Castas was an elaborate way of designating the "racial" or "ethnic" mixture of people in the New World. See Leslie B. Rout, Jr., The African Experience in Spanish America (London and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1976), 126-ff. Colin M. MacLachlan and Jaime E. Rodriguez O., The Forging of the Cosmic Race: A Reinterpretation of Colonial México (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1980), 199.

[^6]:    ${ }^{14}$ More on metonymy in Section 2.4.; see footnote 607.

[^7]:    ${ }^{15}$ L. P. Harvey, Islamic Spain, 1250-1500 (Chicago and London: The University of Chicago Press, 1990), 3.
    ${ }^{16}$ L. P. Harvey, Muslims in Spain, 4.

[^8]:    ${ }^{17}$ L. P. Harvey, Muslims in Spain, 5.
    ${ }^{18} \mathrm{Bi} /$ tripartite is a recognition that after 1492/97 there were technically only two religions in the peninsula: Islam and Christianity; and after the late 1520s, only one. See page 8 (FN4).
    ${ }^{19}$ Def. DRAE (2014 edition): converso, sa. Del lat. conversus. 1. adj. Dicho de una persona: Convertida a una religión distinta de la que tenía. U.t.c.s. 2. adj. Dicho de una persona: Que ha cambiado de ideología o de corriente. U.t.c.s. 3. m. En algunas órdenes y congregaciones religiosas, antiguamente, lego (Il profeso sin opción a las sagradas órdenes). Accessed 11 October 2016. http://dle.rae.es/. "Converso" is a

[^9]:    ${ }^{22}$ Israel Burshatin, "Written on the Body: Slave or Hermaphrodite in Sixteenth-Century Spain," in Queer Iberia: Sexualities, Cultures, and Crossings from the Middle Ages to the Renaissance, ed. Josiah Blackmore and Gregory S. Hutcheson (Durham and London: Duke University Press, 1999), 420-456 (see footnote 598); "Elena Alias Eleno: Genders, Sexualities, and 'Race' in the Mirror of Natural History in Sixteenth-Century Spain," in Gender Reversals and Gender Cultures: Anthropological and Historical Perspectives, ed. Sabrina Ramet (London: Routledge, 1996), 105-122; "Interrogating Hermaphroditism in Sixteenth-Century Spain," in Hispanisms and Homosexualities, ed. Sylvia Molloy and Robert McKee Irwin (Durham, NC: Duke University Press, 1998), 3-18; and, Francois Soyer, Ambiguous Gender in Early Modern Spain and Portugal: Inquisitors, Doctors and the Transgression of Gender Norms (Leiden: BRILL, 2012), 57.
    ${ }^{23}$ Although highly contested by the DRAE and grammarians of the Spanish language, in the United States the gendered (non-inclusive) Spanish language is contested through the use of "o/a" and "as/os" as endings to gendered terms, rather than spelling out, for example, "latinos y latinas" to avoid the male "latinos" being the all-encompassing term it can be shortened to latinos/as. There are additional changes to language, including "@" and "@s" to mean "o/a" and "as/os," respectively. Even this last change is highly contested because the "a/o" or "@" still only represent binaries. Therefore, increasingly, in order to transcend the binary a reader may find that instead of Latinos, Latinos/as, or Latin@s, the term Latinxs (a non-binary term) is used. The use of " $x$ " is increasingly used in order to be inclusive of the transgender community. Whether or not consensus is reached, the desired effect can be maintained: to destabilize the static nature of words, which in this example is/are the words of sex and gender.

[^10]:    24 "Moro" was originally a regional and ethnic designation, it cannot be said that this "ethnicity" was shared by all "Muslims" designated as "moros." See footnote 8.
    ${ }^{25}$ See end of Section 2.1.

[^11]:    ${ }^{26}$ Homi Bhabha, The Location of Culture, with a new preface (London and New York: Routledge, 2004), 54. This is discussed further in in Section 2.3.
    ${ }^{27}$ For example, see James S. Amelang, Parallel Histories: Muslims and Jews in Inquisitorial Spain (Louisiana State University Press: Baton Rouge, 2013), 34.

[^12]:    ${ }^{28}$ Henri Lapeyre, Géographie, 3. "Castille, où les tenants de l'Islam étaient noyés dans la masse des chrétiens, dans le royaume de Valence où ils étaient très nombreux, mais soumis depuis plus trois cents and a des seigneurs qui se faisaient leurs défenseurs, et enfin à Grenade où les vaincus conservaient encore leurs chefs et le souvenir d'une indépendance perd ne depuis d'un siècle."

[^13]:    ${ }^{29}$ James Blaine Tueller, "Good and Faithful Christians: Moriscos and Catholicism in Early Modern Spain" (PhD diss., Columbia University, 1997), 87.
    ${ }^{30}$ Romance/Castilian written in Arabic characters.
    ${ }^{31}$ This is posited from the regional differences proposed by James Blaine Tuellar, "Good and Faithful Christians." See footnote 29.
    ${ }^{32}$ Within the exceptions there are the $6 \%$ that were allowed to remain according to the initial decrees of expulsion. See Henri Lapeyre, Géographie, 63, 151, 188.
    ${ }^{33}$ The use of aporia is as a gap or gaps in the knowledge base or data. It may be related to contradictory data. It is used as a synonym to lacuna. Exceptions are that which goes against the "accepted" or "received" pattern.

[^14]:    ${ }^{34}$ Earl J. Hamilton (1899-1989), Jaime Vicens Vives (1910-1960), and Henri Lapeyre (1910-1984) are often cited. Others, more contemporary, who are also cited like L. P. Harvey, J. H. Elliot, etc. are often using those sources as well. (A type of orientalism as purported by Edward Said.) Earl J. Hamilton, American Treasure and the Price Revolution in Spain, 1501-1650, Harvard Economic Studies 43 (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1934); Jaime Vicens Vives, Economic History of Spain (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1969).
    ${ }^{35}$ L. P. Harvey, Islamic Spain, 7. Jaime Vicens Vives, Economic History, 293.
    ${ }^{36}$ John Edwards, The Spain of the Catholic Monarchs (Oxford: Blackwell Publishers, 2000), 142. Perhaps the result of the devastating effects of the Black Plague, and/or other events.
    ${ }^{37}$ J. H. Elliott, Spain and its World, 1500-1700: Selected Essays (New Haven and London: Yale University Press, 1989), 223.
    ${ }^{38}$ Jane S. Gerber, The Jews of Spain: A History of the Sephardic Experience (New York: The Free Press, 1992), 117.

    39 Joseph Pérez, History of a Tragedy: The Expulsion of the Jews from Spain, trans. Lysa Hochroth, with an introduction by Helen Nader, in Hispanisms, ed. Anne J. Cruz. (Urbana and Chicago: University of Illinois Press, 2007), 14; see also 67, 71. Jane S. Gerber, Jews of Spain, 113, indicates that by 1415 out of $300,000,1 / 3$ were baptized, $1 / 3$ murdered, and $1 / 3$ remained Jewish. See Section 1.2 on peninsular Jews in 1391.
    ${ }^{40}$ Henri Lapeyre, Géographie, 206, 212.
    ${ }^{41}$ Henri Lapeyre, Géographie, 6. Carla Rahn Philips cites 275,000: "The Moriscos of La Mancha, 15701614," The Journal of Modern History, On Demand Supplement, 50 no. 2 (June 1978): D1067. J. H. Elliott

[^15]:    also cites 275,000: Spain and Its World, 225. L. P. Harvey cites 300,000 to 330,000: Muslims in Spain, 1, 12. L. P. Harvey, 12 , citing J. H. Elliot indicates a population of between 7.5 and 8.5 million with an additional million from Portugal. Henri Lapeyre, 212, argues for a population of between 8 and 9 million.
    ${ }^{42}$ Rodrigo de Zayas, Los moriscos y el racismo del estado: Creación, persecución y deportación (14991614) (Córdoba: Editorial Almuzara, 2006), 219: speaks of an expulsion of 500,000 or $16 \%$ of the population and does not indicate the total population. De Zayas' numbers would lead to a total population of $3,125,000$, far lower than any other estimate given. This may in fact be a typo, since 500,000 representing $6 \%$ corresponds to a population of 8.13 million; or, perhaps the $16 \%$ is the percentage for Valencia and the 500,000 the total for the population - there are no other indicators in his text to clarify. L. P. Harvey in Muslims in Spain, 12, indicates that even if the number 300/330,000 is increased to 500,000 that it "would scarcely exceed 5 percent of the total population." The ratio of 500,000 to 8.5 million is actually 5.9 percent (of 7.5 million, $6.7 \%$ ).
    ${ }^{43}$ John Edwards, Spain of the Catholic Monarchs, 229. Jaime Vicens Vives, Economic History, 291. Joseph Pérez, History of a Tragedy, 14; see also 67, 71.
    ${ }^{44}$ L. P. Harvey, Muslims in Spain, 13: "In this, the final century of the existence of Spanish Islam, then a key factor was not the absolute populations of Muslims, not yet the rate of the increase of the Muslims, although this was a theme that preoccupied many Christian commentators of the period who often spoke of the propensity of the Moriscos to breed rapidly."
    ${ }^{45}$ Carla Rahn Phillips, "Moriscos of La Mancha," D1068. Jaime Vicens Vives, Economic History, 177. Jaime Vicens Vives states that in the $14^{\text {th }}$ century $35 \%$ of the population of Valencia was Muslim (mudéjar), $3 \%$ in Catalonia.
    ${ }^{46}$ James Casey, "Moriscos and the depopulation of Valencia," Past \& Present 50 (February 1971): 19.
    ${ }^{47}$ Carla Rahn Phillips, "Moriscos of La Mancha," D1069.
    ${ }^{48}$ Henri Lapeyre, Géographie, 96.

[^16]:    49 The "ladino."
    ${ }^{50}$ For James Blaine Tueller, "Good and Faithful Christians," the "invisibles" could be a "voiceless underclass" (12); the "disappearing Morisco" (20); the non-visible minority as opposed to the "visible minority" (65).

    51 James Blaine Tueller, "Good and Faithful Christians," 71.

[^17]:    ${ }^{52}$ Functionalist theorists of religion include: Max Weber (1864-1920), From Max Weber: Essays in Sociology 1946 trans., ed., and introduction H.H. Gerth and C. Wright Mills (Oxon: Routledge, 1991, orig. 1946), 245-264; Emile Durkheim (1858-1917), Elementary Forms of Religious Life, trans. by W.S.F. Pickering and Jacqueline Redding, in Durkheim on Religion: A Selection of Readings with Bibliographies, VOL. 1 (Cambridge: James Clark \& Co., 1975, orig. 1912), 102-66; Karl Marx (1818-1883), Karl Marx: Early Writings, trans. and ed. T.B. Bottomore (New York: McGraw-Hill,1963); Sigmund Freud (1856-1939); Essentialist scholars include: phenomenologists Rudolf Otto (1869-1937), The Idea of the Holy: An Inquiry into the non-rational factor in the idea of the divine and its relation to the rational, trans. John W. Harvey (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1923, orig. 1917, 2d ed. 1950); and Mircea Eliade (1907-1986), The Sacred and the Profane: the Nature of Religion, trans. Willard R. Trask (New York: Harper Torchbooks, New York, 1957.)
    ${ }^{53}$ See Clifford Geertz, The Interpretation of Cultures (New York: Basic Books, 1973).
    ${ }^{54}$ Charles Taylor, "Foreword," in The Disenchantment of the World: A Political History of Religion by Marcel Gauchet, trans. Oscar Burge, New French Thought, series ed. Thomas Pavel and Mark Lilla (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1997), x. See also Emile Durkheim's Elementary Forms.

[^18]:    ${ }^{55}$ Otto Maduro, Religion and Social Conflicts, trans. Robert R. Barr (Maryknoll, NY: Orbis Books, 1982), 41, 42, 43.

    56 James Blaine Tueller, "Good and Faithful Christians," 49.

[^19]:    ${ }^{57}$ See for example the Oran Fatwa of 1504: L. P. Harvey, Muslims in Spain, 60-64; Cairo fatwas, 65-ff.

[^20]:    ${ }^{58}$ Since they were not all condemned, the perceived or constructed lack of "conversion" had to be coupled with the perceived or constructed "threat" to the State.
    ${ }^{59}$ From a Christian theology perspective dissociation was necessary because of the threat to the irreversibility and indelibility of baptism. Explored further in Section 4.3.
    ${ }^{60}$ Benjamin Ravid, "The Forced Baptism of the Jews in Christian Europe: An Introductory Overview," in Christianizing Peoples and Converting Individuals, ed. Guyda Armstrong and Ian N. Wood, International Medieval Research 17 (Belgium: Brepols, 2000), 159.
    ${ }^{61}$ See Matthew 28. Scripture quotations are from the New Revised Standard Version Bible (New York: National Council of Churches of Christ, 1989).

    62 Biblically, any distinction, prior to baptism is erased, and all are children of God, and as children of God "heirs of God and joint heirs with Christ." Romans 8:17. Galatians 3:26-29, "for in Christ Jesus you are all children of God through faith. As many of you as were baptized into Christ have clothed yourselves with Christ. There is no longer Jew or Greek, there is no longer slave or free, there is no longer male or female; for all of you are one in Christ Jesus. And if you belong to Christ, then you are Abraham's offspring, heirs according to the promise." See also, 1 Corinthians 12:13 and Colossians 3:9-11.

[^21]:    ${ }^{63}$ Benjamin Ravid, "Forced Baptism of the Jews," 159. See also Francisco de Vitoria in Kenneth Mills, William B. Taylor and Sandra Lauderdale Graham, ed. Colonial Latin America: A Documentary History (Wilmington, DE: SR Books, 2002), 75.
    ${ }^{64}$ For the conversion of Germanic tribes see Richard Fletcher, The Conversion of Europe: From Paganism to Christianity 371-1386 AD (London: HarperCollins, 1997) and The Barbarian conversion: From Paganism to Christianity (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1999); Roger Collins, Early Medieval Europe 300-1000 (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1991).

    ${ }^{65}$ Maxwell E. Johnson, "Christian Initiation," in The Oxford Handbook of Early Christian Studies, ed. Susan Ashbrook Harvey and David G. Hunter (Oxford and New York: Oxford University Press, 2008): "Designed, of course, with adults converts in mind; the overall ritual process of baptism in these several sources was to be short-lived, due according to John Baldovin, to its success (Baldovin 1991: 167). In other words, it eventually died out, in part at least, because, apparently, it had worked and, for good or ill, the Empire had become 'Christian'!"

    ${ }^{66}$ See Peter Cramer, Baptism and Change in the Early Middle Ages, c.200-c. 1150 (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1993). This continues to be true as can be seen in the baptismal rite of the Book of Common Prayer (BCP), 298-314. Episcopal Church. The Book of Common Prayer and

[^22]:    Administration of the Sacraments and Other Rites and Ceremonies of the Church: Together with the Psalter or Psalms of David According to the Use of the Episcopal Church (New York: Church Hymnal Corp, 1979).
    ${ }^{67}$ Catechisms are a compilation of religious teachings in the form of questions and answers and include lists of items that are important for Christians to know. Catechisms are used after baptism. The Catechumenate is religious instruction prior to baptism.
    ${ }^{68}$ Henry Kamen, The Spanish Inquisition: A Historical Revision (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1998), xvi.
    ${ }^{69}$ For a vast survey of Baptism from the New Testament through the fifth centuries see Everett Ferguson, Baptism in the Early Church: History, Theology, and Liturgy in the First Five Centuries (Grand Rapids, MI: Wm. B. Eerdmans Publishing Co., 2009).
    ${ }^{70}$ Matthew 3:13-17, Mark 1:9-11, Luke 3:21-22. The word baptism comes from the Greek $\beta a m t i \zeta \omega$ (baptizó) and there are 81 occurrences of it and related forms: In Strong's Concordance it is word number 907. James Strong, Strong's Exhaustive Concordance of the Bible (Nashville: Abingdon Press, 1890).
    ${ }^{71}$ See Matthew 3:11, Acts 2:3; Mark 1:10. John the Baptizer "proclaim[ed] a baptism of repentance for the forgiveness of sins" but also announced that although he baptized with water the one [Jesus] that followed would baptize with the Holy Spirit. For baptism of repentance see Matthew 3:8, 11; Mark 1:4; Luke 3:3; Acts 13:24, 19:4. For the baptism with the Holy Spirit, see Mark 1:8, Luke 3:16, John 1:33. At Jesus' baptism "as he came up from the water, suddenly the heavens were opened to him and he saw the Spirit of God descending like a dove and alighting him." See Matthew 3:16. The gospel according to John mentions that Jesus and his disciples also baptized (John 3:22, 4:1).

[^23]:    ${ }^{72}$ Maxwell E. Johnson, "Christian Initiation," 695.
    ${ }^{73}$ The formula for the water ablution was based on the mission imperative found at the end of the gospel according to Matthew: "Go therefore and make disciples of all nations, baptizing them in the name of the Father and of the Son and of the Holy Spirit." Matthew 28:19.
    ${ }^{74}$ Acts 2:38; see also Acts 8:16, 10:48, 19:5; Romans 6:3; Galatians 3:27.
     occurrences, 15 are specifically tied to healing (e.g. Acts $9: 12,17$ ); 4 to the imposition of hands: Acts 6:6, $8: 17,13: 3,19: 6$. A variant of the word is Strong's number 1936 ( $\varepsilon$ пíi $\theta \varepsilon \sigma ı$-epithesis) with 4 references to the laying on of hands connected to the bestowing of the Holy Spirit: Acts 8:18, 1 Timothy 4:14, 2 Timothy 1:6 and Hebrews 6:2. The Oxford Annotated Bible refers to the "laying on of hands" as "a ritual of consecration and appointment." See Coogan, Michael David Coogan, Marc Zvi Brettler, Carol A. Newsom, and Pheme Perkins, ed., The New Oxford Annotated Bible: New Revised Standard Version: with the Apocrypha: An Ecumenical Study Bible (Oxford [England]: Oxford University Press, 2010), NT 95. References Numbers 8:10, 27:23; 1 Timothy 4:14; 2 Timothy 1:6.
    ${ }^{76}$ Acts 2:38; see also Acts 1:5, 19:6.
    77 "Jesus answered, 'Very truly I tell, no one can enter the kingdom of God without being born of water and the Spirit."" (John 3:5) "Therefore we have been buried by him into death, so that, just as Christ was raised from the dead by the glory of the Father, so we too might walk into the newness of life." (Romans 6:4) Both of these senses continue to exist to this day; for example, the baptism rite as found in the BCP uses the following imagery: "We thank you, Almighty God, for the gift of water. Over it the Holy Spirit moved in the beginning of creation. Through it you led the children of Israel out of their bondage in Egypt into the land of promise. In it your Son Jesus received the baptism of John and was anointed by the Holy Spirit as the

[^24]:    ${ }^{83}$ Maxwell E. Johnson, "Introductory Essay: The Study of the Rite of Christian Initiation Today," in Documents of the Baptismal Liturgy, rev. and exp. E.C. Whitaker and Maxwell E. Johnson (Collegeville, MN: Liturgical Press, 2003), xiv, also xvi; and, "Christian Initiation," 693, 694.
    ${ }^{84}$ For more on the Didache see Aaron Milavec, The Didache: Text, Translations, Analysis, and Commentary (Collegeville, MN: Liturgical Press, 2004). See also, E. C. Whitaker, Documents, 1-2.
    ${ }^{85}$ For the text of the Apostolic Tradition see Hippolytus, and Burton Scott Easton. The Apostolic Tradition of Hippolytus (Hamden, Conn: Archon Books, 1970). Historically the text had been attributed to Hippolytus of Rome, but now "the emerging scholarly view is that this Apostolic Tradition is not Hippolytan in authorship, nor necessarily Roman in its contents, and not early third century in date... [it] may well reflect a synthesis or composite text of various and diverse liturgical patterns and practices reflecting even diverse ecclesial tradition." E. C. Whitaker, Documents, 4. See also John F. Baldovin, S.J., "Hippolytus and the Apostolic Tradition: Recent Research and Commentary," Theological Studies 64 (2003): 520-542. See also Peter Cramer, Baptism and Change, 10-11.

[^25]:    ${ }^{86}$ See M. F. Wiles, "Triple and Single Immersion: Baptism in the Arian Controversy," Studia Patristica 30 (1997): 345; See also C. H. Turner, "Notes of the Apostolic Constitutions. Part II: The Apostolic Canons," The Journal of Theological Studies 16 (1915): 523-538.
    ${ }^{87}$ Aaron Milavec, Didache, 19. According to Maxwell E. Johnson, "Christian Initiation," 697, chapters 61 and 65 of the First Apology of Justin Martyr (c. 155) corroborate the Didache. This text can be found in AnteNicene Fathers, Vol. 1., ed. Alexander Roberts, James Donaldson, and A. Cleveland Coxe, trans. Marcus Dods and George Reith (Buffalo, NY: Christian Literature Publishing Co., 1885); rev. and ed. Kevin Knight, New Advent, accessed 11 March 2014, http://www.newadvent.org/fathers/0126.htm.
    ${ }^{88}$ Aaron Milavec, Didache, 21.
    89 In the Apostolic Tradition the primary purpose of the catechumenate was for the baptismal candidate to hear the word (17) and for their manner of life to be examined $(15,16)$. During the preparation of the catechumens, the teacher laid hands on them at every dismissal from instruction (19:1; 20:3). Those who were selected for baptism were examined (20:1) and in the final days before baptism, the catechumen was anointed with oil multiple times, primarily for exorcism. Those that were to be baptized fasted on Friday (20:7), gathered on the Sabbath (20:7) and held vigil Saturday night (20:9); the baptism was on Sunday morning at dawn (21:1).
    ${ }^{90}$ For some Christians today, weekly participation in the Holy Eucharist is common; participation in the Holy Eucharist in the early and medieval church was rare.

[^26]:    ${ }^{91}$ Canon 8 of the Council of Arles (314).
    ${ }^{92}$ The practice in North Africa was related to what would later fall under the umbrella of the Donatist Controversy. See M. F. Wiles "Triple and Single Immersion," 338. See Charles Munier and Charles de Clercq, Concilia Galliae (Turnholti: Typographi Brepols Editores Pontificii, 1963), 9-13; accessed 21 October 2013, http://www.fourthcentury.com/arles-314-canons-to-sylvester/.
    ${ }^{93}$ The Donatists, as the Novatians (c. 250) before them, refused to admit to communion anyone who had lapsed or was thought to have an invalid baptism (performed by a heretic or schismatic) without rebaptism. The Roman position was that those who had lapsed could be reincorporated in the community and communion after reconciliation through penance. See Maxwell E. Johnson, "Christian Initiation," 701. The Roman position upholds the theology of the indelibility of baptism as a rite which cannot be repeated.
    ${ }^{94}$ John B. Henderson, The Construction of Orthodoxy and Heresy: Neo-Confucian, Islamic, Jewish, and Early Christian Patterns (Albany: State University of New York Press, 1998), 27. See also J. Rebecca Lyman "Heresiology: The Invention of 'heresy' and 'schism'," in The Cambridge History of Christianity, Volume 2: Constantine to c. 600, ed. Augustine Casiday and Frederick W. Norris (Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 2007): 296-313.

[^27]:    ${ }^{95}$ Karl F. Morrison, Understanding Conversion (Charlottesville and London: University Press of Virginia, 1992), 14.
    ${ }^{96}$ Karl F. Morrison, Understanding Conversion, 3, 7, 23.
    ${ }^{97}$ Bert Roest, "Converting the Other and Converting the Self: Double Objectives in Franciscan Educational Writings," in Christianizing Peoples, 297. See also, Peter Cramer, Baptism and Change, 44, 47, 48.
    ${ }^{98}$ Ultimately these non-Christian Christians would also become non-Spanish Spanish.

[^28]:    ${ }^{99}$ Alastair Hamilton, Heresy and Mysticism in Sixteenth-Century Spain (Toronto and Buffalo: University of Toronto Press, 1992), 9.
    ${ }^{100}$ Francisco de Vitoria in Kenneth Mills, et al. Colonial Latin America, 73. See also footnote 538.
    ${ }^{101}$ A. D. Wright, Catholicism and Spanish Society under the Reign of Philip II, 1555-1598, and Philip III, 1598-1621, Studies in Religion and Society 27 (Lewiston, NY, Queenston, ON and Lampeter, UK: The Edwin Mellen Press, 1991), 15.
    ${ }^{102}$ Robert Ricard, The spiritual conquest of Mexico: an essay on the apostolate and the evangelizing methods of the mendicant orders in New Spain, 1523-1572 (Berkeley, Los Angeles and London: University of California Press, 1966), 274.
    ${ }^{103}$ Benjamin Ravid, "Forced Baptism of the Jews," 159.
    ${ }^{104}$ Benjamin Ravid, "Forced Baptism of the Jews," 157. Pope Gregory I, Epistle 1.14.

[^29]:    ${ }^{105}$ Benjamin Ravid, "Forced Baptism of the Jews," 157. Thomas Aquinas, Summa Theologica II-II Q. 10 Art. 12 and III Q. 68 Art. 10. Francisco de Vitoria agreed, see Kenneth Mills et al.., Colonial Latin America, 70.

    106 Patrick Quinn, "St. Thomas Aquinas' Theory of Conversion," in Christianizing Peoples, 270. Unlike Aquinas, Duns Scotus (c. 1266-1308) believed in forced conversion.
    ${ }^{107}$ Donald Mowbray, "Conversio ad bonum commutabile: Augustinian language of conversion in Medieval theology," in Christianizing Peoples, 294. See also, Peter Cramer, Baptism and Change, 87 and 173: Augustine's "peregrinatio of the soul toward God."
    ${ }^{108}$ Benjamin Ravid, "Forced Baptism of the Jews," 159. See also Francisco de Vitoria in Kenneth Mills, et al., Colonial Latin America, 75 .

    109 J . Rebecca Lyman puts it this way - after the toleration of Christianity "heresy was increasingly no longer only an ecclesiastical matter or a serious theological challenge, but a problem of public safety since correct belief and worship ensured the unity and stability of society. Heresiological categories were often a means to establish or maintain common boundaries." See J. Rebecca Lyman, "Heresiology," 296.
    ${ }^{110}$ Rachel L. Stocking, Bishops, Councils, and Consensus in the Visigothic Kingdom, 589-633 (Ann Arbor, MI: The University of Michigan Press, 2000), 123, 136-138, 143, 153.
    ${ }_{111}$ Peter Cramer, Baptism and Change, 185.

[^30]:    112 Francisco de Vitoria in Kenneth Mills, et al., Colonial Latin America, 68.
    ${ }^{113}$ Francisco de Vitoria in Kenneth Mills, et al., Colonial Latin America, 69, 72, 74. At this time the Granadans and Castilians were already baptized and Charles V was about to require baptism of all other Muslim subjects.
    ${ }^{114}$ Francisco de Vitoria in Kenneth Mills, et al., Colonial Latin America, 67.
    ${ }^{115}$ Francisco de Vitoria in Kenneth Mills, et al., Colonial Latin America, 75. See also Benjamin Ravid, "Forced Baptism of the Jews," 159; T. C. Akeley, Christian Initiation in Spain, c. 300-1100 (London: Darton, Longman \& Todd, 1967), 20, 25, 91.

    116 T. C. Akeley, Christian Initiation, 25. Mentioned by Ireneus of Lyon and Tertullian. See Luis A. García Moreno, "El Cristianismo en las Españas: los orígenes," in El concilio de Elvira y su tiempo, ed. Manuel Sotomayor and José Fernández Ubiña (Granada: Editorial Universidad de Granada, 2005), 172.
    ${ }^{117}$ See T. C. Akeley, Christian Initiation, 34, 65, 67, 134, 192.
    ${ }_{118}$ On baptism: canon 1, 2, 4, 24, 38, 39, 42, 48; Catechumenate: canon 10, 11, 45, 68; Confirmation, 77. See also E. C. Whitaker, Documents, 153-175. Canon 42 specified a period of preparation of two years, except for pagan priests who were required three (Canon 4). Baptized virgins were not allowed to marry heretics, Jews (Canon 16), or pagan priests (Canon 17). A possible anomaly to the initiation rite appeared in Canon 39, which specified that a gravely ill gentile could become a Christian merely by the imposition of

[^31]:    hands, not necessarily by water ablution (the water ablution could be implied, but it is not textually mentioned). Canon 77 provided a glimpse into the presence of bishops in the thirty-seven Christian communities in the Iberian Peninsula and their role in baptisms. The Canon suggests that not all baptisms were performed by bishops, thus separating the ablution from the imposition of hands. Canon 77 alluded to the ablution being sufficient for salvation if the person dies before receiving the laying on of hands. Confirmation could be done at a later time (Canon 38, 77). Another canon stated that lay persons could baptize if there was a grave need (Canon 11, 38).

    119 Luis A. García Moreno, "El Cristianismo," 177.
    ${ }^{120}$ See T. C. Akeley, Christian Initiation, 34, 65, 67, 134, 192. For example, the Fourth Council of Toledo.
    ${ }^{121}$ T. C. Akeley, Christian Initiation, 20, 91.
    122 T. C. Akeley, Christian Initiation, 31, 64, 133. See J. D. C. Fisher, Christian Initiation: Baptism in the Medieval West (London: SPCK, 1965), 88-100; M. F. Wiles, "Triple and Single Immersion"; Bryan D. Spinks, Early and Medieval Rituals and Theologies of Baptism: From the New Testament to the Council of Trent (Burlington, VT: Ashgate, 2006), 109-133; Everett Ferguson, Baptism in the Early Church, 663-670. Single immersion was approved in the Fourth Council of Toledo (633) to differentiate the orthodox baptism from Arian baptism which used triple immersion. This is, in part, because of the aftermath of the conversion of Reccared and the mass conversion of the Visigoths in 589. The basis for the orthodoxy of a single immersion can be found in a letter from Pope Gregory I (r. 590-604) to Bishop Leander of Seville (c. 534c.600) which reads, "But with respect to trine immersion in baptism, no truer answer can be given than what you have yourself felt to be right; namely that, where there is one faith, a diversity of usage does no harm to holy Church. Now we, in immersing thrice, signify the sacraments of the three days' sepulture; so that, when the infant is a third time lifted out of the water, the resurrection after a space of three days may be expressed. Or, if any one should perhaps think that this is done out of veneration for the supreme Trinity,

[^32]:    neither so is there any objection to immersing the person to be baptized in the water once, since, there being one substance in three substances, it cannot be in any way reprehensible to immerse the infant in baptism either thrice or once, seeing that by three immersions the Trinity of persons, and in one the singleness of the Divinity may be denoted. But, inasmuch as up to this time it has been the custom of heretics to immerse infants in baptism thrice, I am of opinion that this ought not to be done among you; lest, while they number the immersions, they should divide the Divinity, and while they continue to do as they have been used to do, they should boast of having got the better of our custom." Trans. James Barmby, from Nicene and PostNicene Fathers, Second Series, Vol. 12., ed. Philip Schaff and Henry Wace (Buffalo, NY: Christian Literature Publishing Co., 1895); rev. and ed. Kevin Knight, New Advent, accessed 21 October 2013, http://www.newadvent.org/fathers/360201043.htm.

    Maxwell E. Johnson in "Christian Initiation," 707, notes that new studies challenge this interpretation of the single immersion. He writes that "McConnell, for example, has challenged the long-standing scholarly assumption that the single baptismal immersion characteristic of Spain was an anti-Arian development, and has argued that it was simply the traditional practice of Spanish Christianity, which received an anti-Arian interpretation later." See Christian McConnell, "Baptism in Visigothic Spain: Origins, Development, and Interpretation" (Ph.D. diss., University of Notre Dame, 2005).
    ${ }^{123}$ T. C. Akeley, Christian Initiation, 50.
    ${ }^{124}$ Canon 77 of the Council of Elvira. See footnote 116.
    ${ }^{125}$ T. C. Akeley, Christian Initiation, 75.
    ${ }^{126}$ T. C. Akeley, Christian Initiation, 46, 49, 62, 123.
    ${ }^{127}$ T. C. Akeley, Christian Initiation, 89, 123, 133.
    ${ }^{128}$ T. C. Akeley, Christian Initiation, 86, 180.
    ${ }^{129}$ Roger Collins, Early Medieval Spain: Unity in Diversity, 400-1000, New Studies in Medieval History, ed. Maurice Keen (London and Basingstoke: The Macmillan Press Ltd., 1983), 53-54.

[^33]:    130 Joseph Pérez, History of a Tragedy, 6.
    ${ }^{131}$ Guy G. Stroumsa, "Religious Dynamics between Jews and Christians," in The Making of the Abrahamic Religions in Late Antiquity, Oxford Studies in Abrahamic Religions (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2015), 151.
    ${ }^{132}$ See Rachel L. Stocking, Bishops, Councils, and Consensus, 155.
    ${ }^{133}$ See Rachel L. Stocking, Bishops, Councils, and Consensus, 153; Joseph Pérez, History of a Tragedy, 48; see footnote 98.

[^34]:    ${ }^{134}$ For example, Council of Jerusalem, the seven Ecumenical Councils accepted by the Eastern and Western Churches, and councils specific to a particular denomination or local Church.
    ${ }^{135}$ The Council of Trent was part of the overall European reforming trends of the sixteenth century. The Council of Trent met three times over 18 years (1545-1548; 1551-1552; and 1562-1563) and covered the pontificates of Paul III (1534-1549), Julius III (1550-1555), and Pius IV (1559-1565). The Council addressed issues of belief and practice, and cannot be seen outside of the political and religious context of Europe in the sixteenth century. Robert Bireley summarizes the Council in this way: "The council's historical significance consisted in two achievements.... First, it clarified Catholic teaching on most doctrines contested by the Protestants, and secondly, it put forth a series of reforms that aimed not only at the elimination of abuses but at the renewed pastoral programme that placed the bishop and the priest at the centre of the church's mission." Robert Bireley, SJ, "Redefining Catholicism: Trent and Beyond," in Reform and Expansion, 1500-1660, The Cambridge History of Christianity 6, ed. R. Po-Chia Hsia (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 2007), 148. The council was received in the various provinces of the church starting in 1565. For brief introductions to the Council of Trent see, Mark Greengrass, The Longman Companion to the European Reformation, c. 1500-1618 (London and New York: Longman, 1998), Ch. 8; Owen Chadwick, The Reformation, The Pelican History of the Church, 3 (Middlesex: Penguin Books, Ltd., 1964), 273-ff.

[^35]:    ${ }^{136}$ The Illuminists are probably a notable exception to this.
    ${ }^{137}$ See James Blaine Tueller, "Good and Faithful Christians," 49.
    ${ }^{138}$ For overviews of the history of Jews in Spain see: Jane S. Gerber, Jews of Spain; Joseph Pérez, Los judíos de España (Madrid: Marcial Pons Historia, 2005) and History of a Tragedy; Jonathan Ray, ed. The Jews in Medieval Iberia: 1100-1500 (Boston: Academic Studies Press, 2012); Jonathan Ray, After Expulsion: 1492 and the Making of Sephardic Jewry (New York and London: New York University Press, 2013). See also works by Norman Roth Conversos, Inquisition, and the Expulsion of the Jews from Spain (Madison and London: The University of Wisconsin Press, 1995); and B. Netanyahu, Toward the Inquisition: Essays on Jewish and Converso History in Late Medieval Spain (Ithaca and London: Cornell University Press, 1997), and The Origins of the Inquisition in Fifteenth-Century Spain (New York, New York: Random House, 1995).
    ${ }^{139}$ The Council of Elvira (near Granada), c. 306, deals with issues relating to the Jewish community in the peninsula. The council has four explicit canons dealing with contact between Jews and Christians. For a broad look at the Council of Elvira see Manuel Sotomayor and José Fernández Ubiña, ed., Concilio de Elvira. As it relates to the Jews in the peninsula see the essay in the same volume by Ramón Teja Casuso, "«Exterea gentes»: relaciones con paganos, judíos y herejes en los cánones de Elvira," 220-ff.
    ${ }_{140}$ Joseph Pérez, History of a Tragedy, 5, 6.
    ${ }^{141}$ Joseph Pérez, History of a Tragedy, 6. He further adds that Jews contributed greatly to the broader Iberian society and quotidian, but for centuries "did not constitute a separate social class."

[^36]:    ${ }^{142}$ Briefly: After the fall of the Umayyad Caliphate in 1031 there emerged a series of separate and small taifa kingdoms, and Christian rulers were able to take advantage of this fragmentation to make territorial advances. For example, the taifa kingdom of Toledo fell in 1085. The successive rule of Almoravids (10861148 ) and the Almohads (1156-1269) was able to unify the remaining Muslim-controlled territory, but their territory greatly diminished after the Battle of Las Navas de Tolosa in 1212. The surprisingly last great Christian advance came with the fall of Seville in 1248. After the Almohads and until 1492 the only remaining Muslim kingdom in the peninsula would be that of Nasrids of Granada (1232-1492). See Hugh Kennedy, Muslim Spain and Portugal: A Political History of al-Andalus (London and New York: Longman, 1996). See also, Joseph Pérez, History of a Tragedy, 8-ff., esp. 12.

    143 Jane S. Gerber, Jews of Spain, 97.
    144 Jane S. Gerber, Jews of Spain, 95. "The fueros often drafted to entice Jews into newly reconquered areas were a reflection of competing forces in Spanish society: crown, Church, nobility, and municipality."

    145 Jane S. Gerber, Jews of Spain, 99.

[^37]:    146 Jonathan Ray, After Expulsion, 6; see also 24, 25.
    ${ }^{147}$ B. Netanyahu, Toward the Inquisition, 199.
    148 Jane S. Gerber, Jews of Spain, 95. This type of requisite was not new, but the fact that it was included in the council alludes to a time ripe with anti-Semitic sentiment. Canon 68 reads, "In some provinces a difference in dress distinguishes the Jews or Saracens from the Christians, but in certain others such a confusion has grown up that they cannot be distinguished by any difference. Thus it happens at times that through error Christians have relations with the women of Jews or Saracens, and Jews and Saracens with Christian women. Therefore, that they may not, under pretext of error of this sort, excuse themselves in the future for the excesses of such prohibited intercourse, we decree that such Jews and Saracens of both sexes in every Christian province and at all times shall be marked off in the eyes of the public from other peoples through the character of their dress. Particularly, since it may be read in the writings of Moses [Numbers 15:37-41], that this very law has been enjoined upon them.
    "Moreover, during the last three days before Easter and especially on Good Friday, they shall not go forth in public at all, for the reason that some of them on these very days, as we hear, do not blush to go forth better dressed and are not afraid to mock the Christians who maintain the memory of the most holy Passion by wearing signs of mourning.
    "This, however, we forbid most severely, that any one should presume at all to break forth in insult to the Redeemer. And since we ought not to ignore any insult to Him who blotted out our disgraceful deeds, we

[^38]:    command that such impudent fellows be checked by the secular princes by imposing them proper punishment so that they shall not at all presume to blaspheme Him who was crucified for us."

    From H. J. Schroeder, Disciplinary Decrees of the General Councils: Text, Translation and Commentary (St. Louis: B. Herder, 1937), 78-127. Also accessed through the Medieval Sourcebook: Lateran IV: Canon 68—on Jews, 26 July 2013, http://www.fordham.edu/halsall source/lat4-c68.asp.

    Claudio Sánchez Albornoz, España: un enigma histórico, 6th ed. (Barcelona: Edhasa, 1991), 3:892, argues that dispensation of the use of the badge was received by Ferdinand III (1199-1252) from pope Honorius III (r.1216-1227) in 1219, given the great contributions of the Jews and their threat to return to Muslim-controlled lands if they had to wear the badge.

    149 Jane S. Gerber, Jews of Spain, 101. The negative associations include: responsibility for Jesus' death, desecration of the Eucharist and relics, poisoning of wells, etc.

    150 See Jane S. Gerber, Jews of Spain, 110-ff.
    151 Joseph Pérez, History of a Tragedy, 31; see also 53, 99. See also, Matthew Carr, Blood and Faith: The Purging of Muslim Spain (New York and London: The New Press, 2009), 28-ff.

    152 Joseph Pérez, History of a Tragedy, 31-32.

[^39]:    ${ }^{153}$ Christian rulers in the sixteenth century will be occupied with North Africa and the Ottoman Empire, but not for shared goals or support, but as rival political forces. Jonathan Ray, After Expulsion, 5: "[i]ndeed, one of the defining characteristics of the Mediterranean world in the sixteenth century was that Spanish and Ottoman expansion generally served to preclude either power from achieving true control of the region. Even in their respective spheres of influence at either end of the Mediterranean, Spain and the Ottomans were forced to contend with political and economic challenges from a host of other competitors, including Portugal, Genoa, Venice, the Papal States, and the sultanate of Fez."
    ${ }^{154}$ Jane S. Gerber, Jews of Spain, 104.
    ${ }^{155}$ See the desemitization argument by Alain Milhou in Section 2.3. Alain Milhou "Desemitización y europeización en la cultura española desde la época de los Reyes Católicos hasta la expulsión de los moriscos," Cultura del Renaixement 11 (1993): 35-60.
    ${ }^{156}$ Knowledge of the rate of conversion in the peninsula to Christianity, Judaism or Islam in the centuries following 711 is limited at best. Richard W. Bulliet in his study of changes in names is often cited for the rate of conversion from Christianity and Islam in the first centuries after 711. See Richard W. Bulliet, Conversion to Islam in the medieval period: an essay in quantitative history (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1979). For the earlier centuries, generally, the available data is insufficient to determine numbers with any precision. In the later middle ages, the availability of sources is better, but it remains widely varied, especially regionally. Norman Roth explores the issues relating to numbers and the Jewish population in 15th-century Spain in "Appendix B. Jewish and Converso Population in Fifteenth-Century Spain" in Conversos, Inquisition, 328-332. Joseph Pérez states that in the $8^{\text {th }}, 9^{\text {th }}$ and $10^{\text {th }}$ centuries many Jews converted to Islam. Presumably talking about Christians and Jews, he further states that "[e]stimates show that by the end of the twelfth century 80 percent of the peninsula's Hispano-Roman population had done so," 9. As for the Jewish population in the $15^{\text {th }}$ century, Joseph Pérez writes "It seems reasonable to assume that at the end of the fourteenth century the Jewish population of Castile was in the neighborhood of 250,000 individuals. If we subtract from this figure those Jews who converted to Christianity after the crisis of 1391, some two hundred thousand but probably fewer, and then add a growth factor due to the demographic recovery during the fifteenth century-from which Jews like Christians should have benefited-we are not far from 150,000. This is the usual figure given for the Jewish population of the Castilian territories at the eve of the expulsion of 1492." Joseph Pérez, History of a Tragedy, 14; see also 67, 71. Jonathan Ray, After Expulsion, 19.

[^40]:    157 Jonathan Ray, After Expulsion, 18, 19.
    158 Joseph Pérez, History of a Tragedy, 44.
    159 Jane S. Gerber, Jews of Spain, 113.
    ${ }^{160}$ After 1391 rabbis expressed an opinion "regarding the Jewishness of the converts. They considered the Conversos to be anusim, literally 'forced ones,' who had accepted Christianity against their will and thus were still to be considered Jewish." Jonathan Ray. After Expulsion, 19.

    161 Jane S. Gerber, Jews of Spain, 114.
    162 Benedict XIII (antipope 1394-1423, from Aragón), responsible for the Diputation of Tortosa in 1413, issues the bull Etsi doctoris gentium against the Jews (11 May 1415) which puts more restrictions on the Jewish community. This bull is revoked in 1419 by Pope Martin V (r. 1417-1431). Miguel Ángel García Olmo, Las razones de la Inquisición Española: Una respuesta a la Leyenda Negra (Córdoba: Editorial Almuzara, 2009), 306.

    163 Jane S. Gerber, Jews of Spain, 117.
    ${ }^{164}$ Jane S. Gerber, Jews of Spain, 113. See footnote 156. As expressed in the Introduction, there is an awareness of the difficulties with these demographic numbers in historiography.

[^41]:    ${ }^{165}$ Joseph Pérez estimates between 250,000 and 300,000 converts and descendants of converts from Judaism. See Joseph Pérez, History of a Tragedy, 67, 71.
    ${ }^{166}$ Joseph Pérez, History of a Tragedy, 48. According to the findings in Chapter 3, this phrase may more accurately be "new Christians or 'conversos'." See also footnotes 98, 133.
    ${ }^{167}$ Marranos is a derogatory term used to refer to the converts from Judaism. There are difficulties with the names by which scholars refer to these communities. There is particular difficulty with the use of the term Converso to describe the converts from Judaism, especially when it is used as an apposition to Christians. For example, if we write about "Christians" and "Conversos" in the same context there is an assumption that the conversos are different/other from Christians. See footnotes 19-21.

    168 Jane S. Gerber, Jews of Spain, 119. Historiographically, this distinction is not often made for the baptized descendants of former Muslims, because technically there were no free Muslims remaining in the peninsula after the late 1520s.

    169 Jane S. Gerber, Jews of Spain, 122: "[Jews] [b]ound by ties of history and family, the three groupsobserving Jews, conversos, and marranos-remained in touch with each other, initially living side by side in the same neighborhoods. Boundaries were fluid."

[^42]:    170 Similar to the study it descendants of Muslims, there is historiographical disagreement regarding the conversion of Jews to Christianity. There are scholars who believe that all converts were crypto-Jews, as well as others that state that the majority of the converts became "true" Christians. For example, B. Netanyahu, Toward the Inquisition, 157, argues that by the time of the inception of the Spanish Inquisition in 1480 there was only a small number of crypto-Jews and that the majority was "Christianized and assimilated to a very high degree." B. Netanyahu, 195, further writes that the crypto-Jews "formed a small group, shrinking numerically and declining in their Judaism, ritually as well as conceptually." Perhaps the "conversos" here were the small part, not the whole.

    171 Jonathan Ray. After Expulsion, 26.
    ${ }^{172}$ Kevin Ingram "Introduction," in Kevin Ingram, ed., The Conversos and Moriscos in Late Medieval Spain and Beyond: Volume One: Departures and Change, Studies in medieval and Reformation Traditions, Vol. 141, ed. Andrew Cole Gow (Leiden and Boston: Brill, 2009), 3.
    ${ }^{173}$ Joseph Pérez, History of a Tragedy, 31-32, sees this community as an easy scapegoat.
    174 See Section 2.3.

[^43]:    ${ }^{175}$ Joseph Pérez, History of a Tragedy, 51. See also B. Netanyahu, Toward the Inquisition, 157, 195.
    ${ }^{176}$ This is most evident in the proliferation of categories along the Spanish/African spectrum of miscegenation in the Sistema de Castas, in order to prevent reaching spanishness. See Section 3.2.

    177 Joseph Pérez, History of a Tragedy, 51.
    ${ }^{178}$ A trope.
    179 Kevin Ingram, "Introduction," 4.
    180 Joseph Pérez, History of a Tragedy, 53. See also Jonathan Ray, After Expulsion, 20; Kevin Ingram, "Introduction," 4.

    181 Joseph Pérez, History of a Tragedy, 54.

[^44]:    182 The statute excluded the baptized former Jews and their baptized descendants from holding public office.
    ${ }^{183}$ Joseph Pérez, History of a Tragedy, 54.
    ${ }^{184}$ Kenneth Baxter Wolf, "Sentencia-Estatuto de Toledo, 1449" in Medieval Texts in Translation, 2008, 319; accessed 22 May 2009, http://ccdl.libraries.claremont.edu/u?/irw; Accessed 28 July 2013, http://canilup.googlepages.com.

    185 Joseph Pérez, History of a Tragedy, 54. The name of the bull is Humani generis inimicus.
    ${ }^{186}$ Kenneth Baxter Wolf, "Sentencia-Estatuto de Toledo, 1449."
    ${ }^{187}$ Jane S. Gerber, Jews of Spain, 127.
    188 Joseph Pérez, History of a Tragedy, 68.

[^45]:    189 Jonathan Ray, After Expulsion, 20.
    190 Jane S. Gerber, Jews of Spain, 127.
    191 Jonathan Ray, After Expulsion, 127.

[^46]:    192 Joseph Pérez, History of a Tragedy, 75.
    ${ }^{193}$ Helen Rawlings, The Spanish Inquisition (Malden, MA and Oxford: Blackwell Publishing, 2006), 52.
    194 Papal bull Exigit Sinceras Devotionis Affectus (1 November 1478) establishes the Spanish Inquisition in Castile. There was subsequent authorization for Aragón. See footnote 68.

    195 Jane S. Gerber, Jews of Spain, 130.
    196 Kevin Ingram, "Introduction," 4.
    197 The Spanish Inquisition had jurisdiction only over the baptized. Yet there are some cases of Jews being condemned by the Inquisition. Such is the case of the Holy Child of La Guardia in 1490-91. Joseph Pérez, History of a Tragedy, 83. See also, Norman Roth, Conversos, Inquisition, 212 and 248-251.

[^47]:    198 Norman Roth, Conversos, Inquisition, 222. A sanbenito is a penitential garment worn in Autos de Fe by those serving a sentence from the Inquisition. Merriam-Webster Dictionary entry "sanbenito" definition 2: "a Spanish Inquisition garment resembling a scapular and being either yellow with red crosses for the penitent or black with painted devils and flames for the impenitent condemned to an auto-da-fé." "Sanbenito," accessed 22 January 2014, http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/sanbenito.

    199 Jonathan Ray, After Expulsion, 21.
    200 Helen Rawlings, Spanish Inquisition, 142-144. It may be deemed unsuccessful since the Inquisition and the purity of blood statutes were not abolished until well into the nineteenth century.
    ${ }^{201}$ Joseph Pérez, History of a Tragedy, 111-ff. In this appendix are found three edicts of expulsion: 1) from Torquemada to the Bishopric of Gerona (20 March 1492), 2) from the King and Queen of Castile to the realm of Castile (31 March 1492), and 3) from the King to the realm of Aragón (31 March 1492).

[^48]:    202 Joseph Pérez, History of a Tragedy, 115.
    ${ }^{203}$ Joseph Pérez, History of a Tragedy, 114. As shown in Chapter 3, the Capitulations of 1492 for the surrender of the Nasrid kingdom of Granada, stipulate freedom of religion for Muslims, but required baptism or exile of Jews within three years. This predates de edict of expulsion from later in March 1492.

    204 Jane S. Gerber, Jews of Spain, 137.
    ${ }^{205}$ Jonathan Ray, After Expulsion, 26. The idea of an "inassimilable" community was often used as a trope and when used by historians it is a common historiographical argument which buys into the discursive strategy of othering the communities. See Section 2.3.

[^49]:    206 Helen Rawlings, Spanish Inquisition, 64.
    207 The Granadan capitulations stipulated the baptism or exile of the Jews that were living in the Nasrid Kingdom. This was prior to the much broader edict of expulsion of the Jews later that year.

    208 Helen Rawlings, Spanish Inquisition, 70-71.

[^50]:    209 Caroline Dodds Pennock, Bonds of Blood: Gender, Lifecycle and Sacrifice in Aztec Culture, Series Early Modern History: Society and Culture, ed. Rob Houston and Edward Muir (Hampshire and New York: Palgrave Macmillan, 2008),1.

[^51]:    210 See Ross Hassig, Mexico and the Spanish Conquest, $1^{\text {st }}$ ed. (Longman: London and New York, 1994), 14, 32, 35. (To differentiate the two editions, future references will use México (1).)
    ${ }^{211}$ For a substantial introduction to the sociopolitical organization of the Nahuas see, James Lockhart, The Nahuas after the Conquest: A Social and Cultural History of the Indians in Central Mexico, Sixteenth Through Eighteenth Centuries (Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1992), 14-58.
    ${ }^{212}$ Although Nahua and Amerindian are both used in this thesis, the argument for only using Nahua is convincingly presented by James Lockhart, Nahuas, 1, 8. It is recognized that "Amerindian" is an academic term and not one used in the sixteenth century. Council documents use the homogenizing term "indios." This language usage is explored in Chapter 3 as it contrasts to the use of new Christian in Granada. Amerindian is a homogenous category which could refer to any group of indigenous persons in the Americas; therefore it is italicized.
    ${ }^{213}$ Ross Hassig, México (1), 147.
    ${ }^{214}$ David Carrasco, "Aztec Religion," in Encyclopedia of Religion (ER), $2^{\text {nd }}$ ed. (Detroit: Thomson Gale, 2005), 1:716, and in Religion Past \& Present: Encyclopedia of Theology and Religion (RPP), $4^{\text {th }}$ ed. (Leiden and Boston: Brill, 2006), 1:533.

[^52]:    ${ }^{215}$ David Carrasco, "Aztec Religion," in ER, 1:717 and in RPP, 1:534. The theory of the numinous is attributed to Rudolf Otto, Idea of the Holy. The theory of hierophanies is attributed to Mircea Eliade, Sacred and the Profane.
    ${ }^{216}$ Inga Clendinnen, Aztecs: An Interpretation (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1991), 242.
    ${ }^{217}$ Inga Clendinnen, Aztecs, 244, argues that most scholars overemphasize the imperial cult, and yet, the local domestic rituals are similarly important.
    ${ }^{218}$ The Aztec Calendar is generally viewed as a cyclical calendar. Yet, Ross Hassig argues that "the traditional emphasis on time in Aztec culture as a cyclical phenomenon that patterns behavior is the result of a theoretical predisposition...[and that in fact] the Aztecs did not have a primarily cyclical notion of time or history; rather, they manipulated time by way of their calendar, for political purposes." See Ross Hassig, Time, History, and Belief in Aztec and Colonial México (Austin: University of Texas Press, 2001), xiii.

    219 See David Carrasco, "Aztec Religion," in ER, 1:715-720 and in RPP, 1:533-536; Inga Clendinnen, Aztecs, 4-11, 238-ff.; James Lockhart, Nahuas, 203-260. See also Ross Hassig, México (1), 144.
    ${ }^{220}$ James Lockhart, Nahuas, 203.
    ${ }^{221}$ Ross Hassig, México (1), 27-28, 31.

[^53]:    ${ }^{222}$ Ross Hassig, México (1), 144.
    ${ }^{223}$ Francisco de Vitoria in Kenneth Mills, et al., Colonial Latin America, 68-74.
    224 James Lockhart, Nahuas, 204.
    225 James Lockhart, Nahuas, 203.
    226 James Lockhart, Nahuas, 210.

[^54]:    ${ }^{227}$ James Lockhart, Nahuas, 206, 209.
    228 James Lockhart, Nahuas, 219, 236.
    229 James Lockhart, Nahuas, 235-36.
    ${ }^{230}$ James Lockhart, Nahuas, 236, 238.
    231 James Lockhart, Nahuas, 243.

[^55]:    ${ }^{232}$ John Leddy Phelan, The Millennial Kingdom of the Franciscans in the New World, $2^{\text {nd }}$ rev. ed., (Berkeley and Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1970), 5-17.

[^56]:    ${ }^{233}$ The early history of colonial New Spain/México (1519-1650) has been written primarily by relying on the point of view of the Spanish chronicles of the sixteenth century. There is helpful bibliographical essay by John F. Schwaller, The Church in Colonial Latin America (Wilmington, DE: Scholarly Resources, 2000), 245249. A review of the early chronicles is Georges Baudot, Utopia and History in México: The First Chroniclers of Mexican Civilization, 1520-1569 (Boulder, CO: University of Colorado Press, 1995). See also, Charles Gibson, Aztecs under Spanish Rule (Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press, 1964); Stuart B. Schwartz, ed., Victors and Vanquished: Spanish and Nahua Views of the Conquest of México (Boston: St. Martin's Press, 2000); Ross Hassig, México and the Spanish Conquest, 2d ed. (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 2006). These chronicles include: Bernal Díaz del Castillo (c. 1492-c. 1585) Historia verdadera de la conquista de la Nueva España, Francisco López de Gómara (c. 1511-c. 1566) Historia general de Indias (1553), Hernán Cortés (1485-1547), Letters from México, ed. and trans. Anthony Pagden, introduction J. H. Elliot (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1986), also, Francisco Cervantes de Salazar ( $16^{\text {th }}$ c.), Crónica de la Nueva España (México: Porrúa, 1985). In recent years there has been an effort to problematize this history by augmenting it with sixteenth-century Nahuatl sources and by placing more of an emphasis on localized and topical studies. There is much more scholarly work on late-colonial México (to 1821). See Jeanne Lou Gillespie, Saints and Warriors: Tlaxcalan perspectives on the conquest of Tenochtitlan (New Orleans, LA: University Press of the South, 2004); Sarah L. Cline, ed. and trans., The Book of Tributes: Early Sixteenth-Century Nahuatl Censuses from Morelos (Los Angeles: UCLA Latin American Center, 1993. Sarah L. Cline uses these census materials (from the archives in México City) to improve our understanding of baptism/conversion; "The Spiritual Conquest Reexamined: Baptism and Christian Marriage in Early Sixteenth-Century México," The Hispanic American Historical Review 73, no. 3 (August 1993): 453-480. See also, José Rabasa, "Thinking Europe in Indian Categories, or 'Tell Me the Story of How I Conquered You'," in Coloniality at Large: Latin America and the Postcolonial Debate, ed. Mabel Moraña, Enrique Dussel, and Carlos Jáurequi, Series: Latin America Otherwise: Languages, Empires, Nations, ed. Walter D. Mignolo, Irene Silverblatt, and Sonia Saldívar-Hull. (Durham \& London: Duke University Press, 2008), 4376.

    The classic work in the conversion and evangelization of Amerindians is that of Robert Ricard Spiritual Conquest. See also, Luis N. Rivera Pagán, A Violent Evangelism: The Political and Religious Conquest of the Americas (Louisville, KY: Westminster/John Knox Press, 1992). Much of the early church history of New Spain is dedicated to the different evangelization strategies used by the Franciscans, Dominicans, Augustinians, and later the Jesuits, and to figures such as Bishop Juan de Zumárraga (bishop 1528-48). For example, see John L. Phelan, Millennial Kingdom. Richard E. Greenleaf, Zumárraga and the Mexican Inquisition, 1536-1543 (Washington, DC: Academy of American Franciscan History, 1961); related to this Inquisition episode, see also, Patricia Lopes Don, "Franciscans, Indian Sorcerers, and the Inquisition in New Spain," Journal of World History 17, no. 1 (March 2006): 27-49. This article is reprinted in John F. Schwaller, ed., The Church in Colonial Latin America. Most studies on the Inquisition in New Spain relate to the reestablishment of the Inquisition after 1571. Juan de Zumárraga arrives in 1528 as bishop-elect; he is not consecrated until 1533. There are other clerics and bishops involved as well. Most of the monographs written about the secular clergy are by John F. Schwaller, Origins of Church Wealth in México: Ecclesiastical Revenues and Church Finances, 1523-1600 (Albuquerque: University of New México Press, 1985), and, Church and Clergy in Sixteenth-Century México (Albuquerque: University of New México Press, 1985).

[^57]:    ${ }^{234}$ Concilios Provinciales Primero y Segundo, celebrados en la muy noble, y muy leal ciudad de México. Presidiendo el Ilmo. Y Rmo. Señor D. F. Alonso de Montúfar en los años 1555 y 1565. Dalos a luz el Ilmo. Sr. D. Francisco Antonio Lorenzana, Arzobispo de esta Santa Metropolitana Iglesia. Hereafter referred to as Concilios Provinciales with reference to I, II, or Appendix.

    Volume printed in 1769 by the Archbishop of México Francisco Antonio Lorenzana (1766-1772). This volume includes the Junta Apostólica of 1524 and the canons of the First and Second Provincial Councils of México in 1555 and 1565, hereafter referred to as Concilios Provinciales with the respective number (I, II) or section. The volume also includes papal bulls from Paul III, letters to Charles V, histories of all the bishoprics of México, and an appendix with documents relating to the Juntas of 1537 and 1539. I have consulted this volume at the (Rare Books) Joaquin Garcia Icazbalceta Collection at the Benson Latin American Library - University of Texas at Austin catalogued as GZZ 282 C21p1-2 cop.1. I have consulted other facsimile copies of this book online since the text is available in digitized form. Columbia University and the New York Public Library collections also have copies in their Rare Books Collections. Francisco Antonio Lorenzana states that the original documents to the Junta Apostólica of 1524, as printed in this 1769 volume are not extant. The notes and other annotations are from the time of the printing of the volume. The canons of the Third Provincial Council of México in 1585 are available in a different volume.

[^58]:    ${ }^{238}$ See T. C. Akeley, Christian Initiation, 50, 75, and Canon 77 of the Council of Elvira.
    ${ }^{239}$ Robert Ricard, Spiritual Conquest, 83.
    ${ }^{240}$ This is first argued by Robert Ricard in Spiritual Conquest, 202. This argument is the one picked up by Antonio Garrido Aranda in Moriscos e Indios; Organización de la Iglesia en el Reino de Granada y su proyección en Indias, Siglo XVI (Sevilla: Universidad de Sevilla, 1979). In this thesis it is argued, though, that those connections and parallels are much thinner, but in their contrast they reveal much about the two baptized Christian communities in Granada and New Spain. The connections between Granada and the encounters with the Americas are many; even the agreement between the Catholic Monarch and Christopher Columbus was signed in Granada on 17 April 1492 (See Antonio Garrido Aranda, Organización, 2), but these connections and influences should not be overstated.
    ${ }^{241}$ Antonio Garrido Aranda, Moriscos e Indios, Appendix 2, 113-ff. Universalis Ecclesiae, bull from Julius II in 1508. Important to note that the reference to "Mauretanian" here is from outside Spain and thus retains the connection of "Moor" to Mauretania, but yet used to mean "Muslim" yoke. Orthodoxae Fidei can be found in Antonio Garrido Aranda, Organización, Appendix I, 261.

[^59]:    ${ }^{242}$ Kenneth Mills, et al.., Colonial Latin America, "Instructions to the twelve," 63, 64. There were six preachers and confessors; 2 preachers; 2 priests; 2 lay brothers. Charge by Fray Francisco de los Angeles, Minister General, to Fray Martin de Valencia and the others: see 61 and 63. The Franciscans had a sense of urgency for this evangelization task - they see themselves as being at the $11^{\text {th }}$ hour of the end times (62). See also John Leddy Phelan, Millennial Kingdom, 5-17. John F. Schwaller, "Franciscan Millennial Kingdom," in Iberia and the Americas: Culture, Politics, and History: a Multidisciplinary Encyclopedia, ed. J. Michael Francis (Santa Barbara, CA: ABC-CLIO, Inc., 2006), 506-507.
    ${ }^{243}$ The records of these meetings are some of the texts analyzed in this thesis.
    ${ }^{244}$ Fernando Gil, "Las 'juntas eclesiásticas' durante el episcopado de Fray Juan de Zumárraga (15281548): Algunas precisiones históricas," in Teología, Revista de la Facultad de Teología de la Pontificia Universidad Católica Argentina 54 (1989): 9; see also n. 7 on the same page. José Ignacio Saranyana refers to 15 such meetings: see José Ignacio Saranaya and Carmen José Alejos-Grau, et al. Teología en América Latina. Vol. 1 Desde los orígenes hasta la Guerra de Sucesión (1493-1715) (Madrid: Iberoamericana; Frankfurt: Vervuert, 1999-2008). There is no consensus on which meetings should be included, and as more documentary sources are studied the number of Juntas may be settled.
    ${ }^{245}$ On the arrival of the Franciscans see Robert Ricard, Spiritual Conquest, 21, 61-ff.; the Dominicans, 22, 69-72; the Augustinians, 22, 72-ff.

[^60]:    ${ }^{246}$ See Robert Ricard, Spiritual Conquest, 4, 82.
    ${ }^{247}$ Jerónimo de Mendieta (1525-1604), Historia eclesiástica indiana, ed. Joaquín García Icazbalceta (México: Porrúa, 1980), 27-30. See also Robert Ricard, Spiritual Conquest, 22: "...en las tierras de los infieles donde entonces residían pudiesen proponer y declarar la palabra de Dios y absolver a los que en estas partes se hallasen excomulgados, y recibir y bautizar a los que quisieren convertirse a la Fe Cristiana, y enumerarlos entre los hijos de la Iglesia. Y de estos Frailes, los que fueran sacerdotes, pudiesen administrar a dichas personas los Sacramentos de la Penitencia, Eucaristía, Extremaunción y los demás, y en caso de necesidad, faltando en la provincial los obispos, el Sacramento de la Confirmación, y de dar órdenes menores a los fieles, y también pudiesen bendecir capillas, altares, cálices, ornamentos eclesiástico, reconciliar las Iglesias y cementerios, y proveerlas de ministros idóneos, y conceder las indulgencies que los Obispos suelen conceder en sus obispados y hacer todas las demás cosas, que pertenecieren al aumento del Divino Nombre, conversión de los infieles y acrecentación [sic] de la Fe Católica...y también que puedan usar el Crisma y el Oleo Santo por tres años, porque en aquellas partes no se puede haber sin gran dificultad..."

    248 See Jerónimo de Mendieta, Historia eclesiástica, 30-35; Robert Ricard, Spiritual Conquest, 22.
    ${ }^{249}$ See Jerónimo de Mendieta, Historia eclesiástica, 35-36.
    250 Robert Ricard, Spiritual Conquest, 22, 80.

[^61]:    ${ }^{251}$ The establishment of the church in the Americas had three recognizable periods: the early church from the time of the conquests in 1492 and following, through the 1540s, expansion and establishment of institutional structures through about 1575, and then a more mature church after 1575. John Frederick Schwaller, Church and Clergy, 226.
    ${ }^{252}$ See Robert Ricard, Spiritual Conquest, 39, 45, 55.
    ${ }^{253}$ Robert Ricard, Spiritual Conquest, 35, 55.

[^62]:    ${ }^{254}$ Robert Ricard, Spiritual Conquest, 52.
    ${ }^{255}$ Robert Ricard, Spiritual Conquest, 58.
    ${ }^{256}$ Robert Ricard, Spiritual Conquest, 85.
    ${ }^{257}$ Robert Ricard, Spiritual Conquest, 83.
    ${ }^{258}$ See T. C. Akeley, Christian Initiation, 50, 75, and Canon 77 of the Council of Elvira.

[^63]:    ${ }^{259}$ Francisco Antonio Lorenzana, in the introduction of the Concilios Provinciales, note, page 2; my emphasis. This concern with Holy Oil and Chrism did not exist in Granada given the ready access and presence of bishops. "Se disputa sobre el modo como bautizaron a los Indios recién conquistados los Religiosos; algunos quieren decir, que bautizaban a muchos juntos, rociándolos con un hisopo, y pronunciando a el mismo tiempo la forma; el fundamento de esta aserción fue el que hacían muchos Bautismos en un día, y a veces llegaba el número a mil. El P. Torquemada defiende de este hecho a sus Religiosos, y aunque no niega algún exemplar de Clérigo, que lo hizo, y que acaso lo harían algunos Religiosos en caso de urgente necesidad, trahe también razones para persuadir, que no es nuevo en la Iglesia de Dios el executarlo por Aspersión, citando a tertuliano, San Cipriano, y a Ovando, que refiere haberse hecho así por el Gran Cardenal D. Fr. Francisco Ximenez de Cisneros, de el Orden de San Francisco, en la Conversión de los Moros de Granda; y sobre todo, n se puede afirmar, que es nulo el Bautismo. Recién venidos los Religiosos, no había Santo Chrisma, ni Oleo bendito, y por esta razón, luego que llego, hicieron todas las Ceremonias, y Ritos del Bautismo solemne con los ya estaban bautizados con sola Agua natural, o a lo más bendita, pero no consagrada; y aquí se advierte, que los primeros, que se bautizaron en esta Nueva España, fueron los cuatro Señores de Tlaxcála."
    ${ }^{260}$ Sarah L. Cline, "The Spiritual Conquest Reexamined: Baptism and Christian Marriage in Early Sixteenth-Century México," in The Hispanic American Historical Review 73, no. 3 (August 1993): 453-480, argues that the number of baptisms was not as great as the accounts of the friars have led to believe.

[^64]:    ${ }^{261}$ See Alfred W. Crosby, Jr., The Columbian Exchange: Biological and Cultural Consequences of 1492 (Westport, Connecticut: Greenwood Press, 1972). Europeans also died by new diseases brought through their encounter with these indigenous populations, such as Small Pox and Syphilis.
    ${ }^{262}$ Alfred W. Crosby, Jr., Columbian Exchange, 37-38.
    ${ }^{263}$ The Observant Franciscans that came to the New World believed that they were at the threshold of the second coming of Christ, and his millennial kingdom. They believed that as soon as the last Amerindian was baptized the second coming would be realized. For a brief synopsis of Franciscan eschatology see John Frederick Schwaller, "Franciscan Millennial Kingdom," 506-507; for the standard monograph on the subject see John Leddy Phelan, Millennial Kingdom.

[^65]:    ${ }^{264}$ The system of encomiendas placed a certain number of Amerindians under "the care" of an encomendero: a system of servitude. Repartimientos were the division of Amerindians to encomiendas or repartimientos.
    ${ }^{265}$ President of the second Audiencia of México from 1531 to 1535.
    ${ }^{266}$ Laborers that would carry large loads and were exploited.
    267 José Ignacio Saranyana, Teología en América Latina, 101.

[^66]:    268 Siblimis Deus, accessed 23 February 2012, http://www.papalencyclicals.net/Paul03/p3subli.htm. This source cites the date 29 May 1537, not 2 June. There is some sense that this might be an earlier draft. The text of Sublimis Deus can also be found in Helen Rand Parish and Harold E. Weidman, Las Casas en México: historia y obras desconocidas (México: Fondo de Cultura Económica, 1992), 310-312.
    ${ }^{269}$ Robert Ricard, Spiritual Conquest, 91.
    270 José Ignacio Saranyana, Teología en América Latina, 101.
    ${ }^{271}$ The text of Altitudo Divini Consilii can be found in Helen Rand Parish and Harold E. Weidman, Las Casas en México, 306-309. Quote from Peter McGrail, The Rite of Christian Initiation: Adult Rituals and Roman Catholic Ecclesiology (London and New York: Routledge, 2013), 44. See also, José Rabasa, Tell me the story of how I conquered you: elsewheres and ethnosuicide in the colonial Mesoamerican world (Austin: University of Texas Press, 2011), 65. See also Luis N. Rivera Pagán, Essays from the margins (Eugene: Cascade, 2014), n. 48.

    272 José Ignacio Saranyana, Teología en América Latina, 102.
    ${ }^{273}$ Clero idóneo: this is a great issue and it is tied to the deep seeded needs for reform of the church at all levels.

[^67]:    274 Apendice á los Concilios primero, y segundo mexicanos (México: n.p., 1770), 2-3.
    ${ }^{275}$ Apendice á los Concilios, 2. "Item: hacemos saber á V.M. que los Religiosos que á estas partes han pasado, han tenido, é tienen mucho cuydado de la Instrucción, y conversión de estos Naturales, y han aprovechado mucho, puesto que han sido pocos en número, según la cantidad de las Gentes que en estas partes hay, que son tantas, que no se pueden numerar, y obieran hecho mas, si no hubiera gran estorvo para esta Santa Obra de esta Conversión, y es por donde no ha habido mas Christiandad de la que hay: estar estos Naturales derramados de sus habitaciones, y tan lexos unos de otros, que no se pueden juntar, como los Religiosos querían."
    ${ }^{276}$ All quotes are from the bishops' 1537 letter to Charles V. Apendice á los Concilios, 1-22.

[^68]:    277 Apendice á los Concilios, 27. "en la Conversión de Alemania, é Inglaterra, quando se convirtieron en tiempo del Papa Gregorio, y de el Emperador Carlo Magno, é Pepino, pues tenemos el mismo caso entre las manos ya, y la misma razón que quando se establecieron los dichos Decretos había, y los que los ordenaron tuvieron, quando la Iglesia Católica se asentó en sus Ritos, y Cirimonias....quando el mismo caso se le ofreció, como agora se nos ofrece de muchos Adultos de Gentiles sanos, y que vivian en seguridad de paz, que creían, y se convertían, y concurrían al Baptismo, como agora concurren: y se haga Manual conforme á ellos..."

[^69]:    ${ }^{279}$ Concilios Provinciales (I), 36. "en eftas Partes Occidentales tantos figlos pafados fin conocimiento de el Santo Evangelio, y agora llamados en la ultima edad al conocimiento de nueftra Santa Fé Cathólica tan innumerable gente barbara, y idólatra: Puefstos ya debajo de la obediencia de la Iglefia Cathólica, con la diligencia, y gaftos, y gente, y zelo chriftianifsimo de el Emperador, y Rey de Efpaña..."
    ${ }^{280}$ Concilios Provinciales (I), Canon 4.
    ${ }^{281}$ Concilios Provinciales (I), 43. This shows the shift from Franciscan theology to Dominican theology regarding baptism. "Eftablecemos, y ordenamos, que ningun Cura, ni Religiofo, ni Clérigo adminiftre el Sacramento de el Bautifmo á ningun Adulto, fin que primero fea fuficientemente inftruido en nueftra Santa Fé Cathólica, y limpio, y examinado, afsí de ídolos, como de los Ritos antiguos, y cafado legitimamente, y reftituido lo que tyranicamente tiene ufurpado, y en efpecial fe ha de advertir efto en los Caziques, y Principales..."

[^70]:    ${ }^{282}$ Concilios Provinciales (I), 139. "Que cada año se de vuelta a la Doctrina Cristiana, examinando a cada uno de los Indios en articular, y que se busquen todos los que nunca se han confesado, y se les mande se confiesen, y sepan los Indios, que se casan, la Doctrina."
    ${ }^{283}$ Concilios Provinciales (I), 139. "La experiencia nos enseña, que los Naturales de esta tierra naturalmente son descuidados en los que toca a sus animas, faltando la diligencia de los Ministros, y por tanto conviene, y así es necesario tener muy gran cuidado con ellos en hacerles aprender la Doctrina Cristiana, y en tomarles cuenta a su tiempo si la saben, o no."
    ${ }^{284}$ Concilios Provinciales (I), 138. "se ha dudado, y duda, si será acertado darles el Santísimo Sacramento de la Eucaristía, porque por ser nuevos en la Fe, y de no tanta discreción, y confianza, como se requiere para recibir tan alto Sacramento, no sin gran razón se ha en ello dudado, y porque estamos obligados, como a nuevas plantas, a proveerlos como Padres de sus animas de nutrimento, y sustentación espiritual, y al presente, por la bondad de nuestro Señor, en muchos de ellos se conocen, y ven señales de devoción, y deseo de fe llegar a este Divino Sacramento: porende declaramos que los Ministros puedan administrar este Sacramento a los Indios, y Negros, en quien conocieren, que tienen aparejo, y vieren

[^71]:    señales de devoción, y creencia, y deseo de recibirlo, sobre lo cual les encargamos las conciencias, en que no comuniquen indiferentemente tan alto Misterio a todos los recién convertidos."
    ${ }^{285}$ Concilios Provinciales (I), 68-69. "Y porque nueftro Santísimo Papa Paulo III, confiderando la miferia, y pobreza de los Indios naturales de efta tierra, difpenfó en algunas Fieftas, que no fueffen obligados á las guardar, y les feñaló las que los obligan."
    ${ }^{286}$ Concilios Provinciales (I), 65-67: "Las quales dichas Fieftas guardan todos los Efpañoles, como conviene á buenos Chriftianos." Concilios Provinciales (I), 69: "Los demás días, que la Iglefia obliga á ayunar, los dexa á libertad de los Indios, para que conforme á su pobreza, y oficio, y trabajo, cada uno haga, fin efcrúpulo de pecado, lo que mejor le pareciere; y porque acontece muchas veces, haberfe alquilado los Indios para trabajar en las haciendas de los Efpañoles fon obligados á guardar, y los Indios no; de donde fe toma ocafion, para que el Efpañol no las guarde, como es obligado, porende, S.A.C. eftatuimos, y mandamos, que los Efpañoles no traigan obra aquellos días, ni hagan trabajar á los Indios en fus haciendas, fi no fuere con licencia del el Diocefano en cafos permitidos." This is discussed further in Section 3.2.
    ${ }^{287}$ Concilios Provinciales (I), 70. "Dios es ofendido, y estos Indios recien convertido muy escandalizados."
    ${ }^{288}$ Concilios Provinciales (I), 72. Canon 19. "lo cual allende de ser contra los Mandamientos de Dios, y de su Iglesia, es grave escandalo en el Pueblo Cristiano, y de los Indios, y criados en su casa, no pequeño daño de sus animas."

[^72]:    289 Concilios Provinciales (I), 78. Canon 23.
    ${ }^{290}$ It is believed that the church in Latin America remained pre-Tridentine until the middle of the nineteenth century. Because of this much of the religion transplanted to the new lands was unique, in many ways to Spain and Spanish popular religiosity. Two examples of this would be found in the devotion to the Virgin Mary and the Cult of St. James. For more on the subject of popular religiosity see: Orlando Espín, "Popular Catholicism among Latinos," in Hispanic Catholic Culture in the U. S.: Issues and Concerns, ed. Jay P. Dolan and Allan Figueroa Deck, S. J. (Notre Dame, IN: University of Notre Dame Press, 1994), 30859.

[^73]:    ${ }^{291}$ See Frederick Mathewson Denny, An Introduction to Islam, $4^{\text {th }}$ ed. (Prentice Hall: Boston, 2011): Chapter 5; Fazlur Rahman, "Islam," in ER 7:4560-4691; Emory C. Bogle, Islam: Origin and Belief (University of Texas Press, Austin, 1998); David Waines, An Introduction to Islam (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1995).

[^74]:    292 Bernard Lewis, "Some Observations on the Significance of Heresy in the History of Islam," Studia Islamica 1 (1953): 52, as quoted by John B. Henderson in Construction of Orthodoxy, 19. See also, David Waines, Introduction to Islam, 49.

    293 John B. Henderson, Construction of Orthodoxy, 19.
    294 David Waines, Introduction to Islam, 49.
    295 Frederick Mathewson Denny, Introduction, 120.
    296 David Waines, Introduction to Islam, 53.
    297 "There shall be no compulsion in [acceptance of] the religion. The right course has become clear from the wrong. So whoever disbelieves in Taghut and believes in Allah has grasped the most trustworthy handhold with no break in it. And Allah is Hearing and Knowing." Accessed 21 April 2015, http://www.quran.com.

[^75]:    ${ }^{298}$ Antonio Garrido Aranda, Organización, Appendix 1, 261. The bull Orthodoxae Fidei quotes and earlier bull from Pope Eugene IV. "por las ilustres hazañas en que [Juan] mismo, valientemente, como pugil y atleta famoso de Cristo realize contra los pérfidos moros enemigos del nombre cristiano, y no dejano de dirigir él personalmente el ejército para someter las tierras y lugares ocupados por los moros al dominio cristiano, tal como reconocemos para el splendor de la Iglesia Romana..." For Universalis Ecclesiae, see Antonio Garrido Aranda, Moriscos e Indios, Appendix 2, 113-ff.
    ${ }^{299}$ Antonio Garrido Aranda, Organización, 45. See bull Orthodoxae Fidei in Organización, Appendix I, 261: "concedemos a los Reyes lo que el conde de Tendilla nos expuso en sus nombres: Poder conferido en catedrales, Iglesias, monasterios, y prioratos conventuales en las islas Canarias, Renio de Granada y Puerto Real, y derecho de presentación para canonjías, prebendas y dignidades."
    ${ }^{300}$ Or from a re-conquest point of view: the (re)establishment of the See of Granada.

[^76]:    ${ }^{301}$ Antonio Garrido Aranda, Organización, Appendix 5, 269-ff. This appendix describes the endowment of the Cathedral and the Collegial Church of Santa Fe. This authority was given to Cardinal Pedro González de Mendoza (d. 1495).

    302 Archbishop of Toledo, Francisco Jimenez de Cisneros was in Granada in 1499. Cardinal Pedro González de Mendoza (d. 1493) was given responsibility for the establishment of the Cathedral in 1492. See Antonio Garrido Aranda, Organización, Appendix 5, 269.
    ${ }^{303}$ A. Katie Harris argues that for 1492 there are estimates from 50 to 100 thousand in the Kingdom of Granada. See A. Katie Harris, From Muslim to Christian Granada: Inventing a City's Past in Early-Modern Spain (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 2007), 9. Ángel Galán Sánchez has numbers varying from 200 to 300 thousand. See Ángel Galán Sánchez, Una sociedad en transición: los granadinos de mudéjares a moriscos (Granada: Editorial Universidad de Granada, 2010), 54, 92.

[^77]:    ${ }^{304}$ A. Katie Harris, From Muslim to Christian Granada, 10.
    ${ }^{305}$ An alternate spelling is elches. Miguel Ángel Ladero Quesada writes that "Jiménez de Cisneros, arrived in the city with the authority of the Inquisition to investigate the helches, or former Christians converted to Islam, who resided in the Albaicín and other parts of the kingdom and who continued practicing Islam because the city's capitulation did not oblige them to do otherwise..." in "Mudéjares and Repobladores in the Kingdom of Granada (1485-1501)," in Jews, Christians, and Muslims in the Mediterranean World after 1492, ed. Alisa Meyuhas Ginio (London and Portland: Frank Cass \& Co. Ltd, 1992), 72. It is not clear if the helches were themselves Christians who converted to Islam or descendants of Christians who converted to Islam in previous generations. This is an important distinction because it would determine how (if in any way) the Inquisition can deal with them, which was Jiménez de Cisneros intention and justification for their imprisonment. For another description of the helches incident see Matthew Carr, Blood and Faith, 58-61.
    ${ }^{306}$ Antonio Gallego y Burín, Los moriscos del Reino de Granada según el Sínodo de Guadix de 1554 (Granada: Universidad de Granda, 1968), 17. It seems that Jiménez de Cisneros’ ideology will come full circle during the equally intransigent reign of Philip III and the decreed expulsions of all baptized descendants of Muslims.
    ${ }^{307}$ As cited by L. P. Harvey, Islamic Spain, 330. See Alonso de Santa Cruz, Crónica de los reyes católicos (hasta ahora inédita), ed. Juan de Mata Carriazo (Sevilla, 1951).

[^78]:    ${ }^{308}$ As cited in L. P. Harvey, Muslims in Spain, 29, and Islamic Spain, 318-319. (Curious use of the term Moor: equated to religion.) See Jon Cowans, ed., Early Modern Spain: A Documentary History (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2003), 18.
    ${ }^{309}$ The third Count of Tendilla. From 1492, Captain General of the Kingdom of Granada and Major of the Alhambra.

[^79]:    ${ }^{310}$ Antonio Gallego y Burín, Moriscos del reino de Granada, 163-168. Appendix 5 on Baza, dated 30 September 1500 (thesis Document 3); Appendix 6 on Huéscar, dated 26 February 1501 (thesis Document 4).
    ${ }^{311}$ The Congregation of 1526 recommended the elimination of the use of Arabic, and the translation of contracts written in Arabic. Like other results of this Congregation these were not enforced.
    ${ }^{312}$ Royal decrees in 1511 and 1513 limit the work of newly converted butchers; eventually only old Christians can butcher the meat; in the case that there was not old Christian the local priest or sacristan needed to be present. See Antonio Gallego y Burín, Moriscos del reino de Granada, Appendix 11, 172-73; Appendix 17, 180-81 (thesis Documents 10 and 16).
    ${ }^{313}$ This is interesting because it is the capitulations not baptism that grants the forgiveness of sin. The new converts of Granada will try to negotiate obtain this tabula rasa again and again but it will become more difficult as time progresses and intransigence sets in.
    ${ }^{314}$ Antonio Gallego y Burín, Moriscos del reino de Granada, Appendix 48, 244-ff. (thesis Document 58).
    ${ }^{315}$ Antonio Garrido Aranda, Moriscos e Indios, Appendix 3,117-ff. (thesis Document 32); Appendix 4 of Antonio Gallego y Burín, Moriscos del reino de Granada, 161-ff. There is no date for this document, but it would have to be after the rebellions and before his death, so between 1501 and 1507.

[^80]:    ${ }^{316}$ This is comparable to the lists in the New Spain documents. "signar y santiguar, y entrar en la iglesia y tomar allí agua bendita y decir Paternoster y Avemaria y Credo y adorar allí Nuestro Señor en la santa misa y adorar la santa cruz y hacer a las imágenes reverencia que le es debida." Antonio Gallego y Burín, Moriscos del reino de Granada, Appendix 4, 161.
    ${ }^{317}$ Confession and communion.
    ${ }^{318}$ Antonio Garrido Aranda, Moriscos e Indios, Appendix 3, 17-ff. (thesis Document 32); Antonio Gallego y Burín, Moriscos del reino de Granada, Appendix 4, 161-ff.
    ${ }^{319}$ Antonio Gallego y Burín, Moriscos del reino de Granada, Appendix 4.

[^81]:    ${ }^{320}$ Antonio Gallego y Burín, Moriscos del reino de Granada, Appendices 10-17: 171-181. Decrees of 20 June 1511: Appendices 10 (godparents and baptism), 11 (butchers), 12 (dress); Decree of 14 December 1512: Appendix 13 (tailors); Decrees of 29 July 1513: 14 (godparents and baptism), 15 (dress), 16 (dress), 17 (butchers)-thesis documents 9-16, respectively.
    ${ }^{321}$ Antonio Gallego y Burín, Moriscos del reino de Granada, Appendix 10, 171 (thesis Document 9). "Godparents" is specified as padrinos y madrinas.
    ${ }^{322}$ Antonio Gallego y Burín, Moriscos del reino de Granada, Appendices 11 (1511) and 17 (1513), both letters from Queen Joanna regarding the butchering of meat in a Christian rather than halal manner. The 1513 letter clarifies what to do in case there are no old Christian butchers, especially when out of benevolence an animal needs to be killed. (Thesis documents 10 and 16, respectively.) From Appendix 11: "algunos de los nuevamente convertidos del dicho reino de Granada degüellan algunas veces las carnes como solían en tiempo de moros y no las degüellan según y como los cristianos viejos... e deseando que ellos sean buenos e fieles cristianos...[ahora] ninguno de los nuevamente convertidos puedan degollar ni degüellen carne, sino por mano de los dichos carniceros; y en lugares e alcarias donde no puedan haber carniceros cristianos viejos, las degüelle un carnicero de los dichos nuevamente convertidos sin ninguna de las ceremonias moriscos..."

[^82]:    ${ }^{323}$ Antonio Gallego y Burín, Moriscos del reino de Granada, Appendix 5, New Capitulations for Baza (thesis Document 3).
    ${ }^{324}$ Antonio Gallego y Burín, Moriscos del reino de Granada, Appendix 12, 174. "los nuevamente convertidos... que porque dende en Adelante no hubiese más memoria de las cosas de los moros y estuviesen y viviesen como cristianos, pues lo eran, no pudiesen hacer nuevamente ninguna ropa morisca ni traer más de las que al presente tenían hechas, sino por la forma e manera que las traen los cristianos viejos." Old Christian tailors thought they were exempt from this, so there was a decree prohibiting this as well.
    ${ }^{325}$ See Antonio Gallego y Burín, Moriscos del reino de Granada, Appendix, 27, 194 (thesis Document 25).
    ${ }^{326}$ Antonio Gallego y Burín, Moriscos del reino de Granada, Appendices 24 (regarding old Christian godparents), 25 (regarding butchers)-thesis documents 22 and 23, respectively.
    ${ }^{327}$ Antonio Gallego y Burín, Moriscos del reino de Granada, Appendix 24, 190 (thesis Document 22).

[^83]:    ${ }^{328}$ Antonio Gallego y Burín, Moriscos del reino de Granada, Appendix 25, 192 (thesis Document 23).
    ${ }^{329}$ Antonio Gallego y Burín, Moriscos del reino de Granada, Appendix 24, 190 (thesis Document 22). "e si por guarder la dicha orden los dichos nuevamente convertidos reciben algún daño o perjuicio...." See also, Appendix 25, 193 (thesis Document 23).
    ${ }^{330}$ Curious to note that during the coronation of Charles in 1530, the Spanish were described as wearing Moorish dress. See Margaret R. Greer, Walter D. Mignolo, and Maureen Quilligan, eds. Rereading the Black Legend: The Discourses of Religious and Racial Difference in the Renaissance Empires (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 2007), 92; Barbara Fuchs, Exotic Nation, 96.

    331 Third bishop of Guadix, 1525-1528, then Archbishop of Granada from 1529 to 1542. He was joined by fray Antonio de Guevara (who will become is successor in Guadix), canon Utiel, doctor Quintana, canon Pero Lopez. He is also connected to the church in New Spain.

[^84]:    ${ }^{332}$ Antonio Gallego y Burín, Moriscos del reino de Granada, Appendix 31, 190 (thesis Document 29). "Por cuanto principalmente los reyes han de tener gran cuidado del enzalzamienode nuestra santa fe católica e estirpare quitar e apartar los errores en que los cristianos estuvieren...[estando en Granada] que los nuevamente convertidos...habiendo recibido agua del bautismo de Espiritu Santo, habían hecho y cometido y hacían de cada dia muchas cosas graves contra nuestra santa fe católica, siguiendo su dañada secta primera de Mahoma y a sus errores y ceremonias, de lo cual me fueron dados algunos memoriales y peticiones...[por lo tanto requiero que] se informasen en qué cosas y casos los nuevamente convertidos de moros en el dicho arzobispado seguían la dañada secta de Mahoma y sus errores y ceremonias....[y también sobre] algunos delitos y otras cosas contra ellos..."
    ${ }^{333}$ The Church was concerned that although the act of baptism was done that the child was still being named in a Muslim manner or given a Muslim nickname to be used instead of a Christian name. See Antonio Gallego y Burín, Moriscos del reino de Granada, Appendix 31, 201-205 (thesis Document 29).

[^85]:    ${ }^{334}$ Spanish Chronicler, Luis de Mármol Carvajal (1520-1600), because why would the monarchs then issue additional decrees as early as 1530. See also Francisco Núñez Muley, A Memorandum for the President of the Royal Audiencia and Chancery Court of the City and kingdom of Granada (1567), ed. and trans. by Vincent Barletta, (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 2007), 63-64.
    ${ }^{335}$ Antonio Gallego y Burín, Moriscos del reino de Granada, Appendix 48, 245 (thesis Document 58): "que Vuestra Majestad haga merced a los dichos nuevamente convertidos de moros de concederles perdón general de todo lo pasado, sin ninguna condición de confesión ni otra cosa, por las dificultades y poca habilidad que tienen."
    ${ }^{336}$ Antonio Gallego y Burín, Moriscos del reino de Granada, Appendix 48, 245 (thesis Document 58): "no se debe conceder, pues no ha lugar remisión del pecado no precediendo confesión; mas que, siendo Su Majestad servido que se use con ellos de misericordia, puesto que se les han dado dos términos de gracias por algunos justos respectos y consideraciones, se les podría conceder de nuevo otro termino de gracia, dentro del cual, los que viniesen a confesar sus delitos, y errores enteramente y diesen sus confesiones por escrito ante los inquisidores, fuesen recibidos al gremio y unión de la santa madre Iglesia y sean absueltos en forma, sin confiscación de bienes ni cárcel ni habito, sino en penitencias espirituales, apercibiendolos que si destornaren a sus errores serán castigados conforme a derecho."
    ${ }^{337}$ Antonio Gallego y Burín, Moriscos del reino de Granada, Appendix 52, 250 (thesis Document 62).
    338 Antonio Gallego y Burín, Moriscos del reino de Granada, Appendix 53, 251-ff. and Appendix 54, 252ff. (thesis documents 63 and 64, respectively). One ducado is equivalent to 375 Maravedís. Therefore,

[^86]:    120,000 ducados is equivalent to 45 million maravedis. This is an extraordinary sum of money. This sum of money, if accurate, would (without inflation) fund 100 years of the 40 positions at the Cathedral of Granada, which required over 420,000 maravedís per year.
    ${ }^{339}$ Antonio Gallego y Burín, Moriscos del reino de Granada, Appendix 53, 251 (thesis document 63): "ofrecidos, con que se les hiciese remission general de todos los delitos por ellos cometidos hasta aqui, confesandolos por escrito ante los inquisidores o ante las personas por ellos diputadas, como se requiere para la salvación de sus animas, y sean por ellos absueltos sin imponérseles pena alguna temporal y remitiéndoles todas las obras del derecho y confiscación de bienes por todos los dichos delitos hasta agora cometidos." There was hesitation to confessing in writing, thinking that it could later be used against them, so in Appendix 54 (thesis Document 64), 54, they allow for verbal confession.
    ${ }^{340}$ Antonio Gallego y Burín, Moriscos del reino de Granada, Appendix 54, 254 (thesis document 64): "No se debe presumir que el no haber la dicha confiscación y penas seria ocasión que pecasen, pues que podrían ser gravemente punidos, quemando y desterrando y echando en galera y con sambenitos y cárceles perpetuas y azotes y otros castigos, y si pareciere que no se debe conceder perpetuo, podría concederse por cincuenta o sesenta años."

[^87]:    ${ }^{341}$ Ángel Galán Sánchez, Una sociedad en transición, 22.

[^88]:    ${ }^{342}$ Prior to conversion Muslim access to Christianity was through how they saw Christians behave and through the polemical or theological understanding of Christianity by Islam.
    ${ }^{343}$ See A. D. Wright, Catholicism and Spanish Society, 3, 99, 110, 193.

[^89]:    ${ }^{344}$ A. D. Wright, Catholicism and Spanish Society, 196; also 237.

[^90]:    ${ }^{345}$ Helpful historiographical articles on the Granadan converts and their descendants are Mercedes García Arenal, "Religious Dissent and Minorities: The Morisco Age," The Journal of Modern History 81, no. 4 (December 2009): 888-920. Eliseo Serrano Martin, "La historiografía morisca," in La expulsión de los moriscos, ed. Antonio Moliner Prada (Barcelona: NABLA Ediciones, 2009), 297-320. The most extensive historiographical study through the 1970s is Miguel Ángel de Bunes Ibarra, Los moriscos en el pensamiento histórico: historiografía de un grupo marginado (Madrid: Catedra, 1983).

[^91]:    ${ }^{346}$ A. Katie Harris, From Muslim to Christian Granada, 10. For the architectural conquest see Amy G. Remensnyder, "The Colonization of Sacred Architecture: The Virgin Mary, Mosques, and Temples in Medieval Spain and Early Sixteenth-Century México," in Monks and Nuns, Saints and Outcasts, Sharon Farmer and Barbara H. Rosenwein, eds. (Ithaca, New York: Cornell University Press, 2000), 189-219.
    ${ }^{347}$ Ángel Galán Sánchez, Una sociedad en transición, 21.
    ${ }^{348}$ Ángel Galán Sánchez, Una sociedad en transición, 54, 92.

[^92]:    349 J. N. Hillgarth, "Spanish Historiography and Iberian Reality," History and Theory 24, no. 1 (February 1985): 25. The use of quotation marks for "Spain" in this Chapter is done to denote the use of the term in a homogenizing way, as a place holder for a geographic and political entity not always contiguous with what is understood as Spain today. Anything to do with "Spain" prior to the sixteenth century will be kept in italics, after that time no quotations will be used. The same can be said about "Spanish" when it is ambiguous. The idea of Spain will be in italics.
    ${ }^{350}$ Includes the Nobel laureate Ramón Menéndez Pidal (1869-1968). Crónicas generales de España (1898) and La España del Cid (1929).
    ${ }^{351}$ Includes the Nobel laureate José Ortega y Gasset (1883-1955). A shift from positivist and national history (Volksgeist) to the study of the history of ideas and culture (Zeitgeist, Geistesgeschichte). José Luis Abellán, "La polémica de Sánchez Albornoz con Américo Castro," in Sánchez Albornoz a debate: Homenaje de la Universidad de Valladolid con motivo de su centenario (Valladolid: Secretariado de Publicaciones

[^93]:    Universidad de Valladolid, 1993), 45-52. See José Antonio Maravall Casesnoves (1911-1986), El concepto de España en la edad media, 4th ed. (Madrid: Centro de Estudios Constitucionales, 1997): 253, 257, 304, $327,334,337$. There are various examples where Maravall is firmly placing his work in that of the history of ideas. For example, making the distinction between the actual continuity of the Visigoths and the idea of continuity; the actual events of the reconquest and the idea of reconquest. José Ortega y Gasset, España invertebrada: bosquejo de algunos pensamientos históricos, 9th ed. (Madrid: Revista de Occidente en Alianza Editorial, 1998); Obras completas, 10 vols., Edición Fundación José Ortega y Gasset, Centro de Estudios Orteguianos (Madrid: Taurus, 2004-11).
    ${ }^{352}$ This idea has been developed by Alain Milhou and Barbara Fuchs. See Alain Milhou "Desemitización y europeización"; Barbara Fuchs, Exotic Nation: Maurophilia and the Construction of Early Modern Spain (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2009). This is further explored in Section 2.3.
    ${ }^{353}$ Great theses proposed by historians such as Henri Pirenne (1862-1935), Marc Bloch (1886-1944), and Fernand Braudel (1902-1985). Henri Pirenne, Mohammed and Charlemagne (Mineola, New York: Dover Publications, 2001). The Pirenne Thesis offers the view of the decisive impact on Europe of the presence of Islam. Marc Bloch and the Annales School proponents of the longue durée. March Bloch, Feudal society trans. L. A. Manyon (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1974, c1961); The Historian's Craft, trans. Peter Putnam, with a preface by Peter Burke (Manchester: Manchester University Press, c2002). Fernand Braudel also from the Annales School. Fernand Braudel, On History, trans. Sarah Matthews (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, c1980); The Mediterranean and the Mediterranean World in the Age of Philip II, 2 vols., trans. Siân Reynolds, 1st Harper Torchbook ed. (New York: Harper \& Row, 1972-1973).
    ${ }^{354}$ Mercedes García Arenal, "Religious Dissent and Minorities," 896. As with all "neat" polarities, not all historians fit this framework, not even Américo Castro and Claudio Sánchez Albornoz whose debate is introduced in this chapter. Claudio Sánchez Albornoz defines himself as "católico, liberal y socializante" and "no soy positivista." In Claudio Sánchez Albornoz, España, un enigma histórico, 1:x, 1:13.

[^94]:    ${ }^{355}$ Claudio Sánchez Albornoz, España, un enigma histórico. Claudio Sánchez Albornoz was heir to the pidalian focus on the Reconquista (footnote 436). Américo Castro, España en su historia: cristianos, moros y judíos (Buenos Aires: Editorial Losada, 1948). España en su historia was reissued in 1983 without changes to the text, but with different pagination. Therefore, citation from this book provides both (equivalent) page numbers 1948/1983.

[^95]:    ${ }^{356}$ Joseph F. O'Callaghan writes that "Spanish historians especially have explored their past in an attempt to explain those apparent faults of character they see as causing Spain's decadence in modern times or the retardation of her political and cultural development when compared to that of other European countries." Joseph O' Callaghan, A History of Medieval Spain (Ithaca: Cornell University Press, 1975), 17. This leads to articulations of both continuity and parallel progress with the rest of Europe as well as exaltation of Spain's uniqueness. This is supported by the idea that the decline of Spain at the end of the sixteenth century and beginning of the seventeenth century was due to the presence of "infieles" in the peninsula.
    ${ }^{357}$ Américo Castro, The Structure of Spanish History, trans. Edmund L. King (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1954), 83-84. See also, Américo Castro, España en su historia, 50/50.

    358 J. N. Hillgarth, "Spanish Historiography," 25-26. Here J. N. Hillgarth is criticizing Claudio Sánchez Albornoz and José Antonio Maravall Casesnoves.
    ${ }^{359}$ J. N. Hillgarth, "Spanish Historiography," 23. See footnote 356.
    360 J. N. Hillgarth, "Spanish Historiography," 33, 40.

[^96]:    ${ }^{361}$ J. N. Hillgarth, "Spanish Historiography," 33.
    362 Joseph O' Callaghan, History of Medieval Spain, 18. Américo Castro's "vision tends to be static and does not give sufficient importance to the gradual nature of the historical process." This in itself is Joseph F. O'Callaghan's own historiographical position. See also Pierre Guichard, Al-Andalus: 711-1492 (Hachette Littératures, 2000), 17-ff.
    ${ }^{363}$ It can be noted that both Claudio Sánchez Albornoz and Américo Castro are trying to unify the history of the peninsula as well. Two important works by Isidore of Seville are Etymologies, trans. Stephen A. Barney, et al.., with the collaboration of Muriel Hall (Cambridge, UK; New York: Cambridge University Press, 2006); and De ecclesiasticis officiis, trans. and intro. Thomas L. Knoebel (New York: Newman Press, c. 2008).
    ${ }^{364}$ Farda was a tax/fee paid by Muslims under Christian rule and later baptized descendants of Muslims specifically for the defense of the coast. Baptized descendants of Muslims often negotiated to pay more farda or monies in exchange for levels of autonomy. Baptized descendants of Muslims paid for the defense of the coast and were also blamed for the precarious security situation of the coast. As cited by C. Kathryn Camp, "A Divided Republic: Moriscos and Old Christians in Sixteenth-Century Granada" (Ph.D. diss., University of Michigan, 2001), 134, 216, 217.

[^97]:    ${ }^{365}$ J. N. Hillgarth, "Spanish Historiography," 26. J. N. Hillgarth is citing Joseph F. O'Callaghan idea of "quest for unity" from History of Medieval Spain, 24.
    ${ }^{366}$ J. N. Hillgarth, "Spanish Historiography," 28. J. N. Hillgarth cites Robert B. Tate regarding the fifteenth century. "...created a new Messianic vision of history, a powerful salvific myth which maintained that the Castilian royal house descended from the Goths and that 'all the kings of Spain descend from the House of Castile.' Castilian supremacy, first inside Spain and then in the rest of the world, was presented as 'part of the divine scheme of things."' J. N. Hillgarth's own footnote 16, Robert B. Tate, Ensayos sobre la historiografía peninsular del siglo XV (Madrid: Gredos, 1970), 33-54.

[^98]:    ${ }^{368}$ See Joseph F. O'Callaghan, History of Medieval Spain, 18.
    ${ }^{369}$ Claudio Sánchez Albornoz, España, un enigma histórico, 1:5. See also, 1:7; 4:1335; 4:1339-40.
    ${ }^{370}$ Claudio Sánchez Albornoz, España, un enigma histórico, 4:1334. He writes, "El homo hispanus, forjado en la fragua de la reconquista con el hierro del español primitivo..." See also the prologue to the 2nd ed., 1:2, 1:4-6.
    ${ }^{371}$ Claudio Sánchez Albornoz, España, un enigma histórico, 4:1153-1154. He writes that at various times and places "se habían mezclado...todas las sangres de España...-por bajo de una superestructura disímil alentaba el mismo homo hispanus, con parejas calidades y análogos defectos." J.N. Hillgarth is a great critic of the idea of the homo hispanus. See J. N. Hillgarth, The Visigoths in History and Legend, Studies and Texts 166 (Toronto: Pontifical Institute of Mediaeval Studies, 2009), 61, n. 11.
    ${ }^{372}$ Claudio Sánchez Albornoz, España, un enigma histórico, 4. See also 1:199. Sánchez Albornoz writes, "Insisto en reconocer la importancia del legado del Islam a España...Pero la adopción, recepción, captación e imitación de bienes y valores culturales islámico no autoriza a suponer que los cristianos españoles adoptaron los hábitos mentales, los procesos de conciencia, los mecanismos emotivos y pasionales...de sus vecinos enemigos, por ellos a la postre sojuzgados. El enfrentamiento y contraste de los hispano-arábigo y lo hispano-románico, no tuvo, no pudo tener tan maravillosas consecuencias." Here and elsewhere Claudio Sánchez Albornoz is arguing that notwithstanding the Islamic presence there were no structural or psychological changes to the institutions and people of Spain in the centuries of Islamic presence in the peninsula. Claudio Sánchez Albornoz, España, un enigma histórico, 3:877-ff. Ch. XIV is partly titled "The limits of the Jewish Contribution..." Similar to his views on the Islamic contribution, he writes on 3:878 regarding the Jewish contributions: "La contribución de los judíos españoles a la acuñación de lo hispánico fué muy otra y siempre de carácter negativo, quiero decir que no transmitió calidades, sino que provocó reacciones. Nada de lo esencial de la contextura psíquica del pueblo hebreo dejó huellas entre los españoles. Más aún, una tajante oposición enfrenta lo hebraico y lo hispano." (Yet he calls them

[^99]:    Spanish Jews, and extolls their greatness among Jewish communities and their great contributions to the rest of Europe. For this exaltation as a preamble to the denigration see 3:877-3:878).
    ${ }^{373}$ José Antonio Maravall Casesnoves, Concepto de España, see esp. 479, 483, 487, 492, 499, 502.
    ${ }^{374}$ See Richard Hitchcock, Muslim Spain Reconsidered: From 711 to 1502 (Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press, 2014), 1.
    ${ }^{375}$ For a more extensive exploration of the idea of Hispania and Spain, see José Antonio Maravall Casesnoves, Concepto de España. See also, Joseph F. O'Callaghan, History of Medieval Spain, 17-33; Richard Hitchcock, Muslim Spain, 1-13.

[^100]:    ${ }^{376}$ Roger Collins, Early Medieval Spain, 9. See also Roger Collins, The Arab Conquest of Spain, 710797. A History of Spain, ed. John Lynch. (Oxford: Basil Blackwell, 1989); J. N. Hillgarth, Visigoths. This point of view devalues the Gothic and elevates the Graeco-Roman above anything else.
    ${ }^{377}$ Américo Castro argues against an overemphasis on the geography of the peninsula. This is a critique of a Braudelian view that places great emphasis on geography.

    378 Joseph F. O'Callaghan, Reconquest and Crusade in Medieval Spain (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2003), 4.

    379 Joseph F. O'Callaghan, Reconquest and Crusade, 6. See also, Claudio Sánchez Albornoz, España, un enigma histórico, 4:1082, 4:1088, 4:1174.
    ${ }^{380}$ There is awareness that "Visigoths" is also a homogenous term.
    ${ }^{381}$ J. N. Hillgarth, Visigoths, 9.
    ${ }^{382}$ Roger Collins, Early Medieval Spain, 53-54. See footnotes 129, 132.

[^101]:    ${ }^{383}$ The Caliphate based in Damascus (661-744), in Harran (744-750) and overthrown by the Abbasids in 750. Some fled to North Africa and the Iberian Peninsula/Hispania. The Umayyad's had a presence in alAndalus through 1031.
    ${ }^{384}$ Derek W. Lomax, The Reconquest of Spain (London and New York: Longman Group Limited, 1978), 27: "The frontier between Muslims and Christians became then not a simple line but a wide band of territory." Derek W. Lomax, Reconquest of Spain, 37, calls the Duero valley a "buffer territory."
    ${ }^{385}$ Notwithstanding Roger Collins' assessment of the importance of Roman times, many histories of the peninsula attempt to establish connections and disconnections to the Visigoths depending on their stance regarding change or continuity on the pivot of 711. Roger Collins, Early Medieval Spain, 9.
    ${ }^{386}$ A Christian (north) point of view which cannot account for the Caliphate or an Islamic (south) point of view.

[^102]:    ${ }^{387}$ The pidalian school calls it neogothicism. See Claudio Sánchez Albornoz, España, un enigma histórico, 4:1088. Claudio Sánchez Albornoz writes that is not a political gothic succession but that "más el neogoticismo arraiga pronto en las mentes y en las voluntades de la minoría clerical y nobilaria que rodea a los reyes de Asturias." Joseph F. O'Callaghan, Reconquest and Crusade, 18, also uses neo-gothic. See José Antonio Maravall Casesnoves, Concepto de España, 300-ff.
    ${ }^{388} \mathrm{~J}$. N. Hillgarth is one of the major historians that tends to show the construction of the gothic myth as well as how the three ideas (Reconquista, gothic continuity and the hispani) break down as unifying ideas in the study of Spain. José Ortega y Gasset is unique in his lack of exaltation of the Visigoths and as Joseph F. O'Callaghan puts it, José Ortega y Gasset sees the Visigoths "as the source of all calamities that have befallen Spain over the centuries": History of Medieval Spain, 18.
    ${ }^{389}$ Roger Collins and others note the Chronicle of Alfonso III and the Chronicle of Albelda. See Roger Collins, Early Medieval Spain, 225-ff.; Roger Collins, Arab Conquest, 142-147; Derek W. Lomax, Reconquest of Spain, 25, 39, 40; Claudio Sánchez Albornoz, España, un enigma histórico, 3:727; J. N. Hillgarth, Visigoths, 68 -ff. The Chronicle of Alfonso III has two extant versions: see J. N. Hillgarth, Visigoths, 69. For Claudio Sánchez Albornoz these two chronicles are extremely important for his Reconquista thesis; J. N. Hillgarth refutes this by calling it "highly questionable." See also José Antonio Maravall Casesnoves, Concepto de España, 309-ff.
    ${ }^{390}$ Roger Collins, Early Medieval Spain, 228. See also, Derek W. Lomax, Reconquest of Spain, 25.
    ${ }^{391}$ Roger Collins, Arab Conquest, 147.

[^103]:    392 Roger Collins, Early Medieval Spain, 228.
    ${ }^{393}$ Derek W. Lomax, Reconquest of Spain, 29. José Antonio Maravall Casesnoves, Concepto de España, 254.
    ${ }^{394}$ Derek W. Lomax, Reconquest of Spain, 40; also 38. See also, Joseph F. O'Callaghan, Reconquest and Crusade, 7, 21.

    395 Joseph F. O'Callaghan, Reconquest and Crusade, 11.
    ${ }^{396}$ See footnote 344.
    ${ }^{397}$ See Joseph F. O'Callaghan, 18; Roger Collins, Early Medieval Spain, 268; Richard Fletcher "Reconquest and Crusade in Spain, c 1050-1150", Transactions of the Royal Historical Society, 5th Ser., 37 (1987): 31-47 (esp. 34).

    398 J. N. Hillgarth, Visigoths, 99: Aragón would find it advantageous and geographically propitious to trace their heritage to the Franks and Carolingians; also, Visigoths, 133-ff.

[^104]:    ${ }^{399}$ The only source for Cassius is the tenth-century writings of Ibn al-Qutiyya (d. 977). See J. N. Hillgarth, Visigoths, 59; Roger Collins, Arab Conquest, 204-205.

    400 J. N. Hillgarth, Visigoths, 85-ff.
    401 J. N. Hillgarth, Visigoths, 83. For studies on the mozárabes see Leopoldo Peñarroja Torrejón, Cristianos bajo el Islam: Ios mozárabes hasta la reconquista de Valencia (Madrid: Gredos, 1993); Thomas E. Burman, Religious Polemic and the Intellectual History of the Mozarabs (Leiden and New York: Brill, 1994); Ann Christys, Christians in al-Andalus, 711-1000 (Richmond: Curzon, 2001); Richard Hitchcock, Mozarabs in Medieval and Early-Modern Spain: Identities and Influences (Burlington, VT: Ashgate, 2008); Simon Barton and Peter Linehan, eds. Cross, Crescent and Conversion: Studies on Medieval Spain and Christendom in Memory of Richard Fletcher (Leiden and Boston: Brill, 2008). A classic 19th century work is Francisco Javier Simonet (1829-1897), Historia de los mozárabes de España (1903), 4 vols. (Madrid: Ediciones Turner, 1983). Raúl Gómez-Ruiz, Mozarabs, Hispanics, and the Cross (Maryknoll: Orbis Books, c. 2007). See footnote 20; T. C. Akeley, Christian Initiation as presented on pages 47-48 of this thesis.

    402 J. N. Hillgarth, Visigoths, 96-ff. The Historia Compostellana and Liber sancti Jacobi. See also Roger Collins, Early Medieval Spain, 236-ff.
    ${ }^{403}$ J. N. Hillgarth, Visigoths, 104-ff.
    ${ }^{404}$ As found in El Victorial by Gutierre Díez de Gamen in Castile. J. N. Hillgarth, Visigoths, 121-ff. J. N. Hillgarth, Visigoths, 119, criticizes José A. Maravall Casesnoves for not recognizing the diminution of the myth in these two centuries; he refers to José Antonio Maravall Casesnoves, Concepto de España, section on the gothic heritage, 299-337. See J. N. Hillgarth, "Spanish Historiography," 25-26.

    405 J. N. Hillgarth, Visigoths, 123 -ff. Of note are Scrutinium scriptorium, Las siete edades del mundo, Anacephaleosis (c. 1456). They both were Jewish converts to Christianity from 1391. Pablo, previously Rabbi Solomon ha-Levi, was Bishop of Cartagena (c. 1402) and then Bishop of Burgos (r. 1415-1435). His son Alfonso achieved notable positions both for the Church and the Crown; he succeeded his father as Bishop of Burgos.

[^105]:    ${ }^{406}$ J. N. Hillgarth, Visigoths, 82 from Peter Linehan, History of the Historians of Medieval Spain (Aldershot: Variorum, 1992); Visigoths, 131 from Stephen Gilman, "The Problem of the Spanish Renaissance," in Studies in the Literature of Spain: Sixteenth and Seventeenth Centuries, ed. Michael J. Ruggeris (Brockport: State University of New York Press, 1977), 49.

    407 See José Antonio González Alcantud, El mito de al-Ándalus: orígenes y actualidad de un ideal cultural (Córdoba: Editorial Almuzara, 2014), 23-24. Pedro Damián Cano refers to the name of "uncertain origin" in Al-Ándalus: el Islam y los pueblos ibéricos. (Madrid: Sílex, 2012/13), 11, 23. See also, Pedro Chalmeta, Invasión e islamización: la sumisión de Hispania y la formación de al-Ándalus (Jaén: Universidad de Jaén, 2003), 26-29.

[^106]:    ${ }^{408}$ Pierre Guichard, Al-Andalus, 29: "Mais surtout apparaît sur les monnaies un terme jusque-là inconnu dans les sources et dont l'origine est assez mystérieuse, pour designer la nouvelle province de l'empire islamique: celui d'al-Andalus. On voit le terme latin Hispania des légendes latines traduit en arabe parce nom. Quelle que soit l'explication que l'on donne à ce dernier (la plus courante en fait un dérivé du nom des Vandales qui avaient occupé le sud de l'Espagne des environs de 415 à 429), Il manifeste apparemment la volonté plus ou moins explicite des autorités d'imposer une identité nouvelle, en rupture radicale avec les anciennes réalités du pays."
    ${ }^{409}$ Pedro Damián Cano, AI-Ándalus, 11: "El nombre de al-Ándalus, de incierto origen, pero de rapidísima implantación, designará desde entonces el territorio anteriormente llamado Hispania, en una nueva concepción política, social y religiosa en la que el elemento islámico será preponderante."

[^107]:    411 The idea of Convivencia has been applied to many varied time-frames in the history of the peninsula. The idea of Convivencia is best suited for the study of times and places where those of all three faiths lived together, perhaps not solely harmoniously, but in some sort of equilibrium and mutual tolerance. This is particularly true under the Umayyad Dynasty (756-1031) and later in places like Toledo between the

[^108]:    eleventh and thirteenth centuries. Notwithstanding, Convivencia has been applied to many times, places and contexts where two or three of the religions or their descendants were present.
    ${ }^{412}$ Américo Castro was exiled as a result of the Spanish Civil War (1936-39) and subsequent rule of Francisco Franco (r. 1939-1975). He returned to Spain in 1964. See Eammon Rodgers, ed., Encyclopaedia of Contemporary Spanish Culture (New York, New York: Routledge, 1999), 89.
    ${ }^{413}$ José Luis Abellán, "La polémica de Sánchez Albornoz con Américo Castro," 48.
    ${ }^{414}$ See J. N. Hillgarth, "Spanish Historiography," 33.
    ${ }^{415}$ Américo Castro, España en su historia, 213-214/204-05. See also Américo Castro, The Spaniards: An Introduction to their History, trans. Willard F. King and Selma Margaretten (Berkeley, Los Angeles and London: University of California Press, 1971), 62. Here he cites Qur'an III:63-69. Ahl al-Kitab: Jews and Christians, and other monotheists that predate Islam, and living under Muslim Rule. Related also to dhimmi: a person living under Muslim rule allowed the retention of faith.

[^109]:    ${ }^{416}$ Américo Castro, España en su historia, 210-11/202-03: "La concepción de la tolerancia se derrumbó cuando los musulmanes dejaron de actuar como paradigmas de cultura, y cuando las masas comenzaron a arrollar a los judíos desde fines del siglo XIV. Cristianos, moros y judíos no podían ya cobijarse bajo la misma cúpula, porque se había roto el orden vigente en España: el pueblo cristiano guerreaba o trabajaba la tierra, el moro le labraba las casas y el judío lo señoreaba como agente del fisco y como hábil técnico. Sobre tan extraño complejo se alzaba el poder de reyes y ricos hombres, que los mantenía juntos en convivencia, sin demasiados choques-una convivencia que la Iglesia hizo cuando pudo para romper desde el siglo XIII—. El empuje popular, desde fines del siglo XIV, echó a un lado al moro y arremetió contra el judío. Desde fines del siglo XV, España estuvo regida por una sola creencia, que había absorbido el ímpetu de las otras dos."
    ${ }^{417}$ Américo Castro, Spaniards, 71; also 70. Américo Castro argues that the idea of unity between religion and nation, as adopted by Christians, was a Semitic idea which was incompatible with the coexistence of multiple faiths. Spaniards, 247. This is seen in the analysis in Chapter 4.
    ${ }^{418}$ Although the progressive momentum of the Reconquista dates back to the fall of Toledo in 1085 by Alfonso VI (1040-1109), until the fifteenth century there were still non-belligerent examples of interaction between the various communities (defined by religion), albeit now primarily under Christian Rule. Toledo under Alfonso X (1221-1284) is often cited as an example of non-belligerent interaction among the people of the three faiths. This all irreparably changed after 1391.

[^110]:    ${ }^{419}$ Américo Castro, Spaniards, 62.
    ${ }^{420}$ Américo Castro, Spaniards, 242.
    ${ }^{421}$ Américo Castro, Spaniards, Chapter III, esp. 59. Caste is used as it relates to the concept of castizo: good lineage.

    422 Claudio Sánchez Albornoz, España, un enigma histórico, 3:758-ff.: "Es inexacto afirmar que España quiere decirse los reinos españoles - se desarticulara en tres gradualismos independientes unos de otros: cristianos, moros y judíos. Lo es también que esa graduación se tradujera en un régimen de castas, Y que esa organización se basara en supuestos ideológicos singulares de los españoles, únicos en la Europa de entonces." See also 3:769
    ${ }^{423}$ See Claudio Sánchez Albornoz, España, un enigma histórico, 4:1153-1154.
    ${ }^{424}$ Américo Castro, Spaniards, 28. In Chapter 2, the idea of "constantly being made" is explored in this thesis as part of the presentation of Homi K. Bhabha's understanding of where the locus of culture is made and constantly changing, as well as Barbara Fuchs' exploration of culture and the quotidian. Homi K. Bhabha, The Location of Culture; Barbara Fuchs, Exotic Nation.

[^111]:    ${ }^{425}$ Américo Castro, Spaniards, 29. See also Joseph F. O'Callaghan's assessment of Castro in History of Medieval Spain, 18.
    ${ }^{426}$ Claudio Sánchez Albornoz, España, un enigma histórico, 1:196.
    ${ }^{427}$ See also David Nirenberg, Communities of Violence: Persecution of Minorities in the Middle Ages (Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 1996), 8. David Nirenberg cites Norman Roth as romanticizing the concept of Convivencia. See Norman Roth, "The Jews of Spain and the Expulsion of 1492," in Historian 55, no. 1 (1992): 17-30.

    428 J. N. Hillgarth, "Spanish Historiography," 33.
    429 Jonathan Ray, "Beyond Tolerance and Persecution: Reassessing Our Approach to Medieval 'Convivencia'," in Jewish Social Studies, New Series 11, no. 2 (Winter 2005): 2. See J. N. Hillgarth, "Spanish Historiography," 25.
    ${ }^{430}$ Francisco García Fitz, "Las minorías religiosas y la tolerancia en la edad media hispánica: ¿mito o realidad?" in Tolerancia y convivencia étnico-religiosa en la península ibérica durante la edad media, ed. Alejandro García Sanjuán (Huelva: Universidad de Huelva Publicaciones, 2003), 13.

[^112]:    ${ }^{431}$ Francisco Garcia Fitz, "Las minorías religiosas y la tolerancia," 55.
    432 Francisco García Fitz, "Las minorías religiosas y la tolerancia," 23; also, 24-30, 55. Francisco García Fitz writes, "Sin embargo...no pueden hacernos olvidar que las relaciones entre comunidades no se desarrollaron nunca en pie de igualdad, sino marcando siempre una neta e incuestionable superioridad de unas sobre otras." He further writes of segregation, subordination and discrimination. The othering process analyzed in Chapter 3 (especially Section 3.2) is one of hierarchy since it functions on the vertical plane; this is also seen in the Sistema de Castas. In 16th century hierarchy, Castillian old Christians were at the top.
    ${ }^{433}$ Francisco García Fitz, "Las minorías religiosas y la tolerancia," 30: "coexistencia en un plano de indiscutible desigualdad."

    434 Joseph Pérez, History of a Tragedy, 26.
    ${ }^{435}$ Derek W. Lomax, Reconquest of Spain, 20. Joseph F. O'Callaghan argues that there was "no real possibility of full integration" by those of the non-ruling religion. Those of the non-ruling religion "could only be protected minorities with limited political and legal rights." See, Reconquest and Crusade, 10 and History of Medieval Spain, 23. See also Henry Kamen, The Spanish Inquisition, 4: "The communities of Christians, Jews, and Muslims never lived together on equal terms; so-called convivencia was always a relationship between unequals."

[^113]:    ${ }^{436}$ Claudio Sánchez Albornoz, España, un enigma histórico, 3:726. Claudio Sánchez Albornoz follows the line of the conservative historians and philologists Marcelino Menéndez y Pelayo (1856-1912) and Ramón Menéndez Pidal (1869-1968) in his adherence to the Reconquista view. In the second half of the twentieth century one of the most important figures in this view is José Antonio Maravall Casesnoves, El concepto de España, see especially 249 -ff. A big opponent of the Reconquista view is J. N. Hillgarth who uses the term in quotations. This is remarked by Joseph F. O'Callaghan in Reconquest and Crusade, 1. See J. N. Hillgarth, The Spanish Kingdoms, 1250-1516, 2 vols. (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1976-1978). J. N. Hillgarth uses the term conquest to refer to the territorial and political advance of Christian kingdoms into formerly Muslim-controlled realms. When he uses the term Reconquista it is in italics (for example see pages 1:20, 1:248, 1:248, and 2:628), as J. N. Hillgarth does with other Spanish words in the text; the term Reconquest tends to be in quotations (see pages 1:105, 1:106, 1:186, 1:287 and 1:288), with the exception, to my knowledge, of two instances on page 1:288. All instances referring to 'Reconquest' are related to the end of the conquests in the middle of the thirteenth century.
    ${ }^{437}$ Claudio Sánchez Albornoz, España, un enigma histórico, 3:723: "Considero a la reconquista clave de la Historia de España." (My emphasis.)
    ${ }^{438}$ José Antonio Maravall Casesnoves, Concepto de España, 253: "recojamos la 'idea reconquistadora’ como definición de nuestra Edad Media."
    ${ }^{439}$ Similar to the historiographical importance of the year 711, the year 1492 with its political unification marks the beginning of the Siglo de Oro for Spain (Golden Age; literally, Golden Century). The Kingdom of Navarra joins in 1512; Portugal in 1580. The (literary) Golden Age of Spain is broadly 1492-1681. The latter date is the death Pedro Calderón de la Barca.

[^114]:    440 José Antonio Maravall Casesnoves, Concepto de España, 251-252: "En España, pues, en donde a través de los trecientos años precedentes se había aceptado y asimilado de la manera más completa, no siendo obstáculo a ello la heterogeneidad religiosa y racial, la invasión germánica, se levanta, poco después de la entrada de los árabes, un movimiento de repulsa que muy pronto formula como programa de su acción política la expulsión de esos nuevos elementos extraños, programa que se mantiene hasta su consecución, ocho siglos después." Different from the Visigoths the "new invasion is radically repulsed." ("se levanta una radical repulse de la nueva invasión.")
    ${ }^{441}$ Claudio Sánchez Albornoz, España, un enigma histórico, 3:725: "esta empresa multisecular constituye un caso único en la historia de los pueblos europeos, no tiene equivalente en el pasado de ninguna comunidad histórica occidental. Ninguna nación del viejo mundo ha llevado a cabo una aventura tan difícil y tan monocorde, ninguna ha realizado durante tan dilatado plazo de tiempo una empresa tan decisiva para forjar su propia vida libre. ...rara vez interrumpida por alguna década de paz."
    ${ }^{442}$ The titles translate as "Spain: a Historical Enigma" and "Spain in its History," respectively.
    ${ }^{443}$ Claudio Sánchez Albornoz, España, un enigma histórico, 1:v (prologue of sixth edition). Barbara Fuchs cites Alain Milhou's thesis on the "desemitization" of Spain in Exotic Nation, 20, 21, $22,27$.
    ${ }^{444}$ Claudio Sánchez Albornoz, España, un enigma histórico, 1:5; also 1:7.
    ${ }^{445}$ Claudio Sánchez Albornoz, España, un enigma histórico, 1:12. Américo Castro, according to Claudio Sánchez Albornoz, "se lanza apasionadamente a demostrar que todo en España es resultado del maravilloso desborde de la marea arábigo-hebraica sobre los arenales peninsulares." Claudio Sánchez Albornoz counters that, "La España anterior a la invasión árabe cuenta para mí en el hacer de la estructura hispánica de vida."

[^115]:    ${ }^{446}$ See Barbara Fuchs, Exotic Nation, 20, 22, 27; see also J. N. Hillgarth, Visigoths, 150; also Alain Milhou, "Desemitización y europeización."
    ${ }^{447}$ Américo Castro, Spaniards, 566. Américo Castro, Spaniards, 94: "I have yielded to the evidence that the disposition of the life that is now Spanish was a fabric woven of three threads, none of which may be cut out."
    ${ }^{448}$ See footnote 372.
    ${ }^{449}$ For the conflation of Muslim and African, see footnote 9. For "dissimilar superstructure" see Claudio Sánchez Albornoz, España, un enigma histórico, 4:1153-1154.

[^116]:    450 See Derek W. Lomax, Reconquest of Spain. See also, Joseph F. O'Callaghan, Reconquest and Crusade, 1-22; History of Medieval Spain, 17-33.

    451 Joseph F. O'Callaghan, Reconquest and Crusade, 18.
    ${ }^{452}$ Claudio Sánchez Albornoz, España, un enigma histórico, 3:751. 1085 is the date for the conquest of Toledo.
    ${ }^{453}$ Claudio Sánchez Albornoz, España, un enigma histórico, 3:737; see also the broader sections on depopulation and repopulation, 3:730-3:758.
    ${ }^{454}$ Claudio Sánchez Albornoz, España, un enigma histórico, 3:748: "Durante esos siglos cuajó la contextura orgánica y funcional del embrión de España que fue el reino de Castilla y León." Claudio

[^117]:    Sánchez Albornoz continues, "La colonización del gran yermo del Duero, al mismo tiempo que exigió un esfuerzo gigantesco, tuvo corolarios complejos, polifacéticos, hirientes, decisivo en la forja de lo hispano."

    455 The case of Toledo and Alfonso $X$ being an exception to this view.

[^118]:    ${ }^{456}$ Particularly, immediately following a conquest and before the migration of co-religionists. There are some estimates of Mudéjares being half of the population in parts of Castile and Aragón.
    ${ }^{457}$ Almoravid and Almohad al-Andalus.
    ${ }^{458}$ Derek W. Lomax, Reconquest of Spain, 38.
    ${ }^{459}$ For example, the Banu Qasi. See footnote 399.
    ${ }^{460}$ Américo Castro, España en su historia, 471/448. See footnote 431.

[^119]:    ${ }^{461}$ For a summary of the prevalent historiographical errors, see Section 2.2.
    462 Américo Castro, España en su historia, 58/58; also 50/50.
    ${ }^{463}$ There is one example of an attempt at syncretism as found in the Sacromonte Texts, but this was an exception, and certainly did not have an impact as Guadalupe would in the New World. See footnote 519.

[^120]:    464 Jonathan Ray, "Beyond Tolerance and Persecution," 4. Jonathan Ray also writes, "Jewish spiritual leaders and communal officials viewed the accessibility of gentile culture as one of the primary challenges to Jewish religious piety, social cohesion, and political autonomy," 12.
    ${ }^{465}$ See footnote 139 on the Council of Elvira (c. 306). There is even earlier textual evidence from the Third Council of Toledo preventing the marriages between Christians and Jews. There was also anti-Jewish legislation by Egica (r. 687-702), later overturned by Witiza (r. 694-710): see footnote 129.
    ${ }^{466}$ Refer to the literature on the ninth-century Martyrs of Córdoba: Edward P. Colbert, "The Martyrs of Córdoba (850-859): A Study of the Sources" (PhD diss., Catholic University of America, 1962); Dominique Millet-Gérard, Chrétiens mozarabes et culture islamique dans l'Espagne des VIIIe-IXe siècles (Paris: Etudes augustiniennes, 1984); Kenneth Baxter Wolf, "The Earliest Spanish Views of Islam," Church History 55 (1986), Christian Martyrs in Muslim Spain (Cambridge University Press, 1988), and Conquerors and Chroniclers of Early Medieval Spain (Liverpool: Liverpool University Press, 1990); Joanne McWilliam, "The Context of Spanish Adoptionism: A Review," in Conversion and Continuity: Indigenous Christian Communities in Islamic Lands, ed. Michael Gervers and Ramzi Jibran Bikhazi (Toronto, 1990):75-88; Jessica A. Coope, The Martyrs of Cordoba: Community and Family Conflict in an Age of Mass Conversion (University of Nebraska, 1995); Janina M. Safran, "Identity and Differentiation in Ninth-Century al-Andalus," Speculum 76, no. 3 (2000): 573-598. For the primary sources see Eulogius, Documentum martyriale, Memoriale sanctorum, and Liber apologeticus martyrum, in PL, España Sagrada, and Corpus scriptorium Muzarabicorum. Juan Gil, ed., Corpus scriptorium Muzarabicorum, 2 vols. (Madrid: Instituto Antonio de Nebrija, 1973).

[^121]:    ${ }^{468}$ See Barbara Fuchs, Exotic Nation, Chapter 1 and Postscript passim.
    469 Francisco Núñez Muley, Memorandum, 70.

[^122]:    470 See for example, Henry Kamen, "Toleration and Dissent in Sixteenth-Century Spain: The Alternative Tradition," in The Sixteenth Century Journal, 19, no. 1 (Spring 1988): 3-23. He begins his 1988 article by challenging the view of sixteenth-century Spain as solely a persecuting society, countering that view with evidence of a society committed to pluralism. At times, Henry Kamen and others are so intent on debunking the "Black Legend" that they end up with a "White Legend" of their own. They go from a picture of utter brutality to one of benevolence.
    ${ }^{471}$ See A. Gordon Kinder, "Creation of the Black Legend: Literary Contributions of Spanish Protestant Exiles," Mediterranean Studies 6 (1996): 67-68. See also, María de Guzmán, Spain’s Long Shadow: The Black Legend, Off-whiteness, and Anglo-American Empire (Minneapolis and London: University of

[^123]:    Minnesota Press, 2005), 5: "In this legend, 'the Spaniard' became a typological emblem of religious and political intolerance, tyranny, misrule, conspiracy, cruelty, barbarity, bloodthirstiness, backwardness, slothfulness, and degeneracy." See also Maria de Guzmán, Spain's Long Shadow, xxvi.
    ${ }^{472}$ Margaret R. Greer, et al., Rereading the Black Legend, 2; also Walter D. Mignolo, "Afterword: What does the Black Legend have to do with Race?" in Margaret R. Greer, et al., Rereading the Black Legend, 312: Mignolo's quote is in the main text: see footnote 475.
    ${ }^{473}$ Julián Juderías, La leyenda negra y la verdad histórica, 2nd ed. (Madrid, 1914) - earlier published as an essay in 1913. As cited in A. Gordon Kinder "Creation of the Black Legend," 67-78.
    ${ }^{474}$ Maria de Guzmán in Spain's Long Shadow, shows the implication of the continuing construction of Spain as morally darker/blacker and racially other by the United States to influence its current treatment of Latin@s/Hispanics and Muslims in the opening decade of the twenty-first century. See footnote 23.

[^124]:    475 Walter D. Mignolo, "Afterword," 312.

[^125]:    ${ }^{476}$ Margaret R. Greer, et al., Rereading the Black Legend, 6, citing Henry Kamen and Joseph Pérez (FN 5) see the Black Legend as official propaganda from England: "a one-sided argument to which Philip II did not contribute but which was fed by certain political and religious sectors in England."

    477 The idea of Orientalism is explored further in Section 2.3. Edward W. Said, Orientalism (New York: Vintage Books, 1979/2004), 1-28; Culture and Imperialism (New York: Vintage Books, 1994); abbreviated version in "Orientalism" in The Post-Colonial Studies Reader, ed. Bill Ashcroft, Gareth Griffiths, and Helen Tiffin (London and New York: Routledge, 1995): 87-91.
    ${ }^{478}$ Barbara Fuchs, "The Spanish Race," in Rereading the Black Legend, Margaret R. Greer, et al.., 93, 94.
    ${ }^{479}$ Barbara Fuchs, "Spanish Race," 88; also 93-94. (Shown in this thesis discursively.)
    ${ }^{480}$ Barbara Fuchs, "Spanish Race," 94.

[^126]:    481 "Although not named until the twentieth century, the Black Legend was created when Spain's enemies took Spain's own internal debates about its identity and 'purity of blood' and the morality of its behavior in the New World and constructed an image of the Spanish as violent and close to barbarians." Margaret R. Greer, et al., Rereading the Black Legend, 14. The discourses of the "Black Legend" require referencing the brutalities of the Spanish Empire related to the expulsion of Jews (Conversos) and Muslims (Moriscos), the atrocities in the "New" World, and the trans-Atlantic slave trade. Although some of the actions of Spain that gave rise to the Black Legend are true, by putting the blame on Spain and its backwardness, it also serves to absolve the other Empires, including the English and the Dutch, from the same atrocities.
    ${ }^{482}$ A. Gordon Kinder's article, "Creation of the Black Legend" (see footnotes 471, 473), deals primarily with the experiences of Spanish Protestant exiles and how these also fueled the agenda of creating animosity between competing ideological camps. Other writings used to fuel the Black Legend include Francisco López de Gómara (Historia General de las Indias, 1552), and the Italian Girolamo Benzoni (Historia del Mondo Nuovo, 1565). The figure of Bartolomé de las Casas, "defender of the Indians" doesn't come out so well in their defense: the difference between Sepúlveda and Las Casas was one of means not aims. See Gonzalo Lamana, "Of Books, Popes, and Huacas; or, The Dilemmas of Being Christian," in Margaret R. Greer, et al., Rereading the Black Legend, 127: "the question was not one of goals and agency but of means and agents." See also, Yolanda Fabiola Orquera, "Race' and 'Class' in the Spanish Colonies of America: A Dynamic Social Perception," in Margaret R. Greer, et al., Rereading the Black Legend, 171: a "benevolent oppressor." See also Margaret R. Greer, et al., Rereading the Black Legend, 19.
    ${ }^{483}$ Benjamin Keen, "The Black Legend Revisited: Assumptions and Realities" in The Hispanic American Historical Review 49, no. 4 (November 1969): 703-719. Although Benjamin Keen agrees that there is an ideological struggle that feeds into the Black Legend, he is adamant to show that the root of the Black Legend is not found in Las Casas, that it is better seen in Francisco López de Gómara and Girolamo Benzoni: "Certainly the Very Brief Account of Las Casas helped to deepen and diffuse more widely the evil reputation that Spain already had acquired in Europe, but to say that the book 'laid a solid foundation for the Black Legend' of Spanish cruelty in the Indies is to oversimplify a complex process that still awaits thorough investigation," 712.

[^127]:    ${ }^{484}$ Benjamin Keen, "The Black Legend Revisited," 716-717.
    ${ }^{485}$ Barbara Fuchs, Exotic Nation, 4. See also Maria de Guzmán, Spain’s Long Shadow, 70.
    ${ }^{486}$ See footnote 9.
    ${ }^{487}$ Henry Kamen, "Limpieza and the Ghost of Américo Castro: Racism as a Tool of Literary Analysis," in Hispanic Review 6, no. 1 (Winter 1996): 19-29. Kamen quotes William Monter showing that "the lay tribunals in Germany executed up to ten times more heretics between 1520 and 1550 than the Holy Office did in Spain (Monter, 124)." Kamen continues, 26: "The English courts in the sixteenth century on my estimation executed at least five times more heretics than the Spaniards did. The problem of the conversos in sixteenth-century Spain were nothing compared to the persecution of Huguenots in France." William Monter, "Controles religiosos y sociales en los países germánicos en tiempos de las Reformas," Revista de la Inquisición 2 (1992): 121-133.

[^128]:    ${ }^{488}$ Salvador de Madariaga, The Rise of the Spanish American Empire (New York: Macmillan Company, 1947), xvii. Variations of this statement are cited by Hubert Herring, A History of Latin America, 3rd ed. (New York, 1967), 64, which then is used by Benjamin Keen, "The Black Legend Revisited," 713.
    ${ }^{489}$ Irene Silverblatt, "The Black Legend and Global Conspiracies: Spain, the Inquisition, and the Emerging Modern World," in Margaret R. Greer, et al., Rereading the Black Legend, 99.

    490 Margaret R. Greer, et al., Rereading the Black Legend, 9: "Fernández Retamar (1989) notices the persistence of the racial othering of Spain and its extension to Latin America when he cites Alexandre Dumas's classic formulation.... Retamar points out the persistence of this form of the Black Legend itself as a form of racism, evident in the common use in the United States of the words 'Hispanic' and 'Latino' as classified with other 'people of color."' See footnotes 23 and 474.
    ${ }^{491}$ Maria de Guzmán, Spain's Long Shadow, 81, cites Victor Hugo (1802-1885) from the preface to Les Orientales (1829) as found in Philippe Julian's The Orientalists, European Painters of Eastern Scenes (Oxford: Phaidon, 1977), 115. See Spain's Long Shadow, 333 (FN 18).

[^129]:    ${ }^{492}$ Maria de Guzmán, Spain's Long Shadow, 81, cites Alfred de Vigny (1797-1863) also from Philippe Julian's The Orientalists, 115. See Spain's Long Shadow, 333 (FN 19).
    ${ }^{493}$ María de Guzmán, Spain's Long Shadow, xxiv.
    ${ }^{494}$ It is acknowledged here that the term "Anglo-Americans" is problematic (perhaps in similar ways as are elucidated here with the term "morisco") and thus italicized.
    ${ }^{495}$ María de Guzmán, Spain's Long Shadow, xxvii.
    ${ }^{496}$ María de Guzmán, Spain's Long Shadow, xxvii.

[^130]:    497 María de Guzmán, Spain's Long Shadow, xxviii. See also, 5: "The 'darkness' and even 'blackness' of the Spaniard became not only a religious, ethical, and historical issue, but a racial one as well in which the body bore the stigma of its culture at the same time that it functioned as the main determinant of that culture. As such, it is crucial that this 'blackening' and/or darkening of 'the Spaniard' be distinguished from the notion of some objective or impartial representation of the historical fact that 'Spaniards,' despite the expulsion of the Muslims and the Jews in the later fifteenth century, are descended from Arabs, Jews, Berbers, Romans, Vandals, Phoenicians, Celts, Greeks, and Carthaginians, and others, or that there have been and are Spaniards with a wide diversity of skin tones." See also, 6.

[^131]:    ${ }^{498}$ Alun Munslow, The Routledge Companion to Historical Studies, 2nd ed. (London and New York: Routledge, 2006), 3-6.
    ${ }^{499}$ Alun Munslow, Companion, 199.

[^132]:    500 For an extensive review of the historiography see Chapter 1 of Amalia García Pedraza, Actitudes ante la muerte en la Granada del siglo XVI. Los moriscos que quisieron salvarse, vol. 1 (Granada: Universidad de Granada, 2002), 25-122. See also Eliseo Serrano Martin, "La historiografía morisca."
    ${ }^{501}$ Luis del Mármol Carvajal, Historia de la rebelión y castigo de los moriscos del Reino de Granada (1600).
    ${ }^{502}$ Amalia García Pedraza, Actitudes ante la muerte, 33-39.
    ${ }^{503}$ Trevor J. Dadson, Tolerance and Coexistence in Early Modern Spain: Old Christians and Moriscos in the Campo de Calatrava (Woodbridge and Rochester: Tamesis, 2014), 2-3.
    ${ }^{504}$ A phrase seen in Chapters 3 and 4 which belongs primarily to the region of Valencia and has been used extensively historiographically. See also footnote 29.

[^133]:    ${ }^{505}$ Amalia García Pedraza, Actitudes ante la muerte, 30-32.
    ${ }^{506}$ Amalia García Pedraza, Actitudes ante la muerte, 37-ff. Writings of Jaime Bleda (1610/1618), Damián Fonseca (1612) and Aznar Cardona. The apologetic literature also includes texts by Gaspar de Aguilar (1561-1623) and Juan Ripol (1613).

    507 Amalia García Pedraza, Actitudes ante la muerte, 41: "retratos robot."
    508 Fernand Braudel, Mediterranean. See Amalia García Pedraza, Actitudes ante la muerte, 31; Barbara Fuchs, Exotic Nation, 128. See footnote 8.

    509 Amalia García Pedraza, Actitudes ante la muerte, 48. "nación que forjó como unidad política en su lucha contra el Islam" que afirma su "europeidad." See also 52: "la forja de la nacionalidad española en la permanente lucha religiosa contra el Islam."

[^134]:    510 See A. Katie Harris, From Muslim to Christian Granada, 23. See also Américo Castro, España en su historia, 58/58 and Structure of Spanish History, 93. Amalia García Pedraza, Actitudes ante la muerte, 47-ff.
    ${ }^{511}$ Amalia García Pedraza, Actitudes ante la muerte, 50.
    $5^{512}$ An example of this is the work of Barbara Fuchs, Exotic Nation. Francisco Núñez Muley, Memorandum.
    ${ }^{513}$ Henry Charles Lea. The Moriscos of Spain: Their Conversion and Expulsion (New York, Greenwood Press, 1968).

    514 Amalia García Pedraza, Actitudes ante la muerte, section on Henry Charles Lea, 51-53.
    ${ }^{515}$ Amalia García Pedraza, Actitudes ante la muerte, 53-55. Pedro Longás Bartibás, Vida religiosa de los moriscos (Madrid: E. Maestre, 1915).
    ${ }^{516}$ Amalia García Pedraza, Actitudes ante la muerte, 59.

[^135]:    517 See the works of Mikel de Epalza, Mercedes García Arenal and Luis F. Bernabé Pons.
    ${ }^{518}$ See the work of Luce López Baralt, Islam in Spanish Literature. From the Middle Ages to the Present (Leiden: E. J. Brill, 1992). Aljamiado literature includes texts written in aljamía. Aljamía is a "morisco" romance language text transcribed in Arabic characters. Def. DRAE (2014 edition): aljamía (Del ár. hisp. al'aǧamíyya, y este del ár. clás. a‘ǧamiyyah.) 1. f. Entre los antiguos musulmanes habitantes de España, lengua de los cristianos peninsulares. 2. f. Texto morisco en romance, pero transcrito con caracteres árabes. 3. f. Texto judeoespañol transcrito con caracteres hebreos. Definition aljamiado, da from the dictionary of the Real Academia Española: 1. adj. Que hablaba la aljamía. 2. adj. Escrito en aljamía. Accessed 28 October 2015.
    ${ }^{519}$ For studies on the Sacromonte texts see Mercedes García Arenal and Fernando Francisco Mediano, eds., The Orient of Spain: Converted Muslims, The Forged Lead Books of Granada, and the Rise of Orientalism (Leiden and Boston: Brill, 2013); Manuel Barrios Aguilera, La invención de los libros plúmbeos: fraude, historia y mito (Granada: Universidad de Granada, 2011); Mercedes García Arenal and Fernando Francisco Mediano, "Jerónimo Román de la Higuera and the Lead Books of Sacromonte," in Conversos and Moriscos, Kevin Ingram, ed., 243-268; L. P. Harvey, Muslims in Spain, Ch. 8 and Appendix III; A. Katie Harris, From Muslim to Christian Granada; Manuel Barrios Aguilera and Mercedes García Arenal, eds. Los Plomos del Sacromonte: Invención y Tesoro (Valencia, Granada and Zaragoza: Universidad de Valencia, 2006); David Coleman, Creating Christian Granada: Society and Religious Culture in an Old-World Frontier City, 1492-1600 (Ithaca: Cornell University Press, 2003).

    520 Amalia García Pedraza, Actitudes ante la muerte, 56: "Ademas, Pedro Longás no entra a valorar una de las características de este tipo de literatura: el alto nivel de mestizaje que en ella hay entre elementos hispánicos e islámicos"; 69: "unos individuos inasimilables, así como la negación de la hibridación cultural entre los dos grupos." "Mestizaje" has to do with mixing and miscegenation in the Americas. Def.

[^136]:    "Mestizaje" in New Dictionary of the History of Ideas. Encyclopedia.com. (11 October 2016). Accesed 15 October 2016. http://www.encyclopedia.com/history/dictionaries-thesauruses-pictures-and-pressreleases/mestizaje.
    ${ }^{521}$ Amalia García Pedraza, Actitudes ante la muerte, 71.
    522 Amalia García Pedraza, Actitudes ante la muerte, 72: "Supone la ruptura definitiva con una visión de la minoría que, profundamente arraigada en nuestra historiografía, presentaba al colectivo como una comunidad compacta pero pasiva, incapaz de contraponer una resistencia activa al cerco religioso levantado por los vencedores."
    ${ }^{523}$ Amalia García Pedraza, Actitudes ante la muerte, 81.
    524 Amalia García Pedraza writes that taqiyya is "un concepto que, sin crítica ni reflexión, se ha eregido en palabra compendio de toda la problemática planteada por la minoría en material religiosa, así como explicación última del porqué del fracaso de la integración del grupo." Amalia García Pedraza, Actitudes ante la muerte, 109; see also 74. "Más trascendental aún, ¿fue la práctica de la taqiyya la única estrategia de supervivencia del grupo ante un medio hostil como lo era la sociedad cristiano vieja?. Taqiyya means dissimulation and behaving externally in a manner which is different from the internal belief. There isn't agreement that taqiyya was practiced in the peninsula, by any, let along by all of the baptized descendants of Muslims. Eliseo Serrano Martin, "La historiografía morisca," 304. Taqiyya means dissimulation - hiding one's faith because of the hostile context. The scholars who alert us to taqiyya usually argue that this community, as a whole, did not truly convert to Christianity. This is the view of Louis Cardaillac; it is also mentioned by Henry Kamen in "Toleration and Dissent", 5.

[^137]:    525 Amalia García Pedraza, Actitudes ante la muerte, 81.
    ${ }^{526}$ Antonio Domínguez Ortiz and Bernard Vincent, Historia de los moriscos. Vida y tragedia de una minoría (Madrid: Editorial Revista de Occidente, 1978); Francisco Márquez Villanueva, El problema morisco (desde otras laderas) (Madrid: Ediciones Libertarias, 1998); Mercedes García Arenal, "El problema morisco: propuestas de discusión," Al-Qantara 13, no. 2 (1992): 491-504. See also Bernard Vincent, El río morisco (Valencia: Publicaciones de las Universidades de Valencia, 2006) and Minorías y marginados en la España del siglo XVI (Granada: Diputación Provincial de Granada, 1987).

    527 Amalia García Pedraza, Actitudes ante la muerte, 94: "Que es ser morisco; cuál es el alcance de la aculturación; cuales son los ingredientes de la identidad; cuales son las fronteras que definen a un grupo minoritario; en qué radica la diferencia y, sobre todo...qué papel jugó la nueva religión en la formación de una nueva identidad social."

[^138]:    528 Amalia García Pedraza, Actitudes ante la muerte, 100: "Eugenio Císcar muestra como nunca desapareció la plena conciencia de las dos comunidades, siendo en el ámbito de las mentalidades donde se hallan las diferencias más bruscas aunque 'ni siquiera en este aspecto la fractura es insuperable."

    529 "Fifth-column" is a $20^{\text {th }}$ century term. Def. $\operatorname{DRAE}$ ( 2014 edition): quinta columna, 1. f. Grupo organizado que en un país en guerra actúa clandestinamente en favor del enemigo. U. t. en sent. fig. Accessed 17 October 2016.
    ${ }^{530}$ Eliseo Serrano Martin, "La historiografía morisca," 303. See Francisco Márquez Villanueva, Problema morisco; Amalia García Pedraza, Actitudes ante la muerte, 93; Trevor J. Dadson, "Official Rhetoric versus Local Reality: Propaganda and the Expulsion of the Moriscos," In Rhetoric and Reality in Early Modern Spain, ed. Richard J. Pym (Suffolk and Rochester: Tamesis, 2006), 5; Américo Castro, España en su historia, 55/55; Structure of Spanish History, 90; Spaniards, 8, 244; and, also Antonio Gallego y Burín, Los moriscos del reino de Granada, 149-151.

[^139]:    ${ }^{531}$ James S. Amelang, Parallel Histories, 34. It should be noted that although he is pointing to a bias in the texts, he may be unwillingly perpetuating the bias through his use of the terms "morisco" and "cryptoMuslim."

    532 See Amalia García Pedraza, Actitudes ante la muerte, esp. 106-122.

[^140]:    ${ }^{533}$ Américo Castro, España en su historia, 471/448.

[^141]:    534 Claudio Sánchez Albornoz, España, un enigma histórico, 3:955 (my translation): "Muchos miles de hebreos, llenos de pánico, pidieron y obtuvieron el bautismo. Ese gran número de apostasías que no permite atribuir a los judíos españoles demasiada firmeza en su fe ni demasiado valor martirial.... [Los judíos que] dejándose arrastrar por la corriente, constituyeron en adelante un elemento hibrido, enquistado dentro de la sociedad cristiana española y por largo tiempo no asimilado a ella."
    ${ }^{535}$ Américo Castro, España en su historia, 55/55; Structure of Spanish History, 90; Spaniards, 8, 244. See also Antonio Gallego y Burín, Los moriscos del reino de Granada, 149-151; Trevor J. Dadson, "Official Rhetoric," 5; Eliseo Serrano Martin, "La historiografía morisca," 303; Francisco Márquez Villanueva, Problema morisco; and Amalia García Pedraza, Actitudes ante la muerte, 93. See footnote 529.
    ${ }^{536}$ Américo Castro, Spaniards, 9, 95, 252.
    ${ }^{537}$ Américo Castro, España en su historia, 50/50.
    ${ }^{538}$ Américo Castro, España en su historia, 50/50; Structure of Spanish History, 84; Spaniards, 216. "So much so Moors" is my translation of the beginning of "Tan moros eran, que el piadoso rey Felipe III decidió expulsarlos de sus reinos en 1609." L. P. Harvey argues that all Granadan converts remained Muslim and thus can only refer to them as crypto-Muslims. Antonio Gallego y Burín, Los moriscos del reino de Granada, 137, agrees and writes, "Vemos, pues, cómo los moriscos granadinos no abandonaron ni dejaron de practicar, desde su nacimiento hasta el día mismo de su muerte, los usos y ritos de los auténticos musulmanes."
    ${ }^{539}$ Américo Castro, España en su historia, 57/57, 58/58; Structure of Spanish History, 91-92 and 93; Spaniards, 250.

[^142]:    540 Alun Muslow, Companion, 61.
    ${ }^{541}$ Alun Muslow, Companion, 10, 164-166, describes "the shift in historical explanation toward and emphasis on the role of language in creating historical meaning." Alun Munslow cites Richard M. Rorty. See Richard M. Rorty, ed., The Linguistic Turn: Essays in Philosophical Method, rev. ed. (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1992).

[^143]:    542 Some scholars differentiate between post-colonial and postcolonial, or post-modern and postmodern. Although using a hyphen is the style used in this thesis, it is not indicative of taking a position with respect to this debate.
    ${ }^{543}$ This idea is borrowed from Homi K. Bhabha, Location of Culture, 71: "Each time the encounter with identity occurs at the point at which something exceeds the frame of the image, it eludes the eye, evacuates the self as site of identity and autonomy and-most important-leaves a resistant trace, a stain of the subject, a sign of resistance." When history is written as the Enlightenment/Modernity proposes it cannot capture the whole scene. Although this is true of the entire historical endeavor it is addressing the particular aporias created by the Enlightenment/Modernity approach.

[^144]:    544 Edward W. Said, Orientalism: Culture and Imperialism.
    545 See Edward W. Said, Orientalism, 1-28; abbreviated version in "Orientalism" in Post-Colonial Studies Reader, 87-91.
    ${ }^{546}$ Surprisingly, as is seen later, the Black Legend may be seen as an example of orientalism - in this case Spain being othered/Orientalized. It is an example of the dissonance between how Spain increasingly viewed itself, and how the rest of Europe and England viewed Spain. In a description of the coronation of Charles V, his entourage is described as wearing Moorish dress - something that later in some of the documents being studied in this thesis was a cause of great anxiety in Granada, and indicative of disloyalty to the crown. See Barbara Fuchs, Exotic Nation, 101 and n. 41 p. 166. She cites Prudencio de Sandóval (c. 1560-1620), Historia de la vida y hechos del Emperador Carlos V (1604-1606), ed. Carlos Seco Serrano (Madrid: BAE, 1955), 1:452.

    547 With respect to Latin America the work of Anibal Quijano, Walter D. Mignolo, Enrique Dussel, et al., is very important, especially with the challenge they have posed to the conventions of post-colonial theory, and the terminology they have developed for the post-colonial study of Latin America. They not only criticize Orientalism, but also make a claim against Occidentalism and Eurocentrism, while falling within a critique of modernity or the assumption of the teleology of history. See Mabel Moraña, et al., Coloniality at Large.

[^145]:    ${ }^{548}$ See Mabel Moraña, et al., Coloniality at Large, 8. The particularities (but not exceptionalism) of Granada and New Spain challenge the presuppositions of post-colonial studies by pushing colonialism and imperialism back to the late fifteenth, sixteenth, and seventeenth centuries, thus the pre-Enlightenment and the Spanish Empire. By studying Granada through a post-colonial lens, it is also bringing Spain into the center of a conversation from which it has been excluded. Very few studies refer to Granada as a colony after the capitulations of 1492. Robert I. Burns does refer to Granada as colony from 1492 until 1500: Burns describes a community that goes "from free Islam to colonial Islam to Moriscos" in R. I. Burns "Mudejar Parallel Societies: Anglophone Historiography and Spanish Context, 1975-2000," in Christians, Muslims, and Jews in Medieval and Early Modern Spain: Interactions and Cultural Change, ed. Mark D. Meyerson and Edward D. English, rev., Notre Dame Conferences in Medieval Studies 8 (Notre Dame: University of Notre Dame Press, 2000), 105. And, proposing that in these two particular locations there has not been a postcolonialism. Not only was colonialism in its apogee in the sixteenth-century, but has been argued that there has not been a twentieth century decolonization process in Latin America. Furthermore, Granada is not typically seen as a colony of the Spanish Empire and because of the expulsion of Granadans in 1570 to other areas of the Iberian Peninsula and eventual expulsion from all of Spanish lands, they never became a population with the possibility of decolonization (they were only a population with the possibility/potentiality of assimilation.) The impact of their expulsion has been extremely difficult to trace, although the impact on the Spanish imagination is more easily seen in in the subsequent apologetic literature justifying the expulsion and the history of the period.

[^146]:    ${ }^{551}$ Ania Loomba, Colonialism/Postcolonialism, 2nd ed. (Oxon and New York: Routledge, 2005), 11.
    552 In the case of Granada primarily extortion.
    ${ }^{553}$ See Claudio Sánchez Albornoz, España, un enigma histórico, 3:730-3:758.

[^147]:    554 See Homi K. Bhabha's Location of Culture, and Walter D. Mignolo, "The Darker Side of the Renaissance: Colonization and the Discontinuity of the Classical Tradition," Renaissance Quarterly 45, no. 4 (Winter 1992): 808-828; Local Histories/Global Designs: Coloniality, Subaltern Knowledges and Border Thinking, 2nd ed. (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 2012).

    555 Homi K. Bhabha, Location of Culture, 2.
    556 Homi K. Bhabha, Location of Culture, 54.

[^148]:    ${ }^{557}$ Homi K. Bhabha, Location of Culture, 36, 50-2, 167, 179, 201. This teleological view of history is also challenged by Barbara Fuchs, "Maurophilia and the Morisco Subject," in Conversos and Moriscos, ed. Kevin Ingram, 269; she refutes a history of Spain that relies on supersession "which imagines a present that replaces and improves upon a past left behind" and shows how this "involves a deliberate effort of rhetorical and historiographical construction." See also footnote 547.

    558 Homi K. Bhabha, Location of Culture, 49-50; also Homi K. Bhabha, "The Commitment to Theory," in New Formations 5 (summer, 1988): 18; "Cultural Diveristy and Cultural Differences" in The Post-Colonial Studies Reader, ed. Bill Ashcroft, et al., 155 (excerpts from "The Commitment to Theory").

    559 Homi K. Bhabha, Location of Culture, 49; also 54.
    560 Homi K. Bhabha, Location of Culture, 52.

[^149]:    ${ }^{561}$ Homi K. Bhabha, Location of Culture, 215.
    562 Homi K. Bhabha, Location of Culture, 52.
    ${ }^{563}$ Walter D. Mignolo, "Afterword: From Colonial Discourse to Colonial Semiosis," in Dispositio 14, no. 36/38, Colonial Discourse (1989): 333-337: "Since we have to account for a complex system of semiotic interactions embodied in the discursive (oral) and the textual (material inscriptions in different writing systems), we need a concept such as "colonial semiosis" which has the advantage of taking us away from the tyranny of the alphabet-oriented notions of text and discourse and the disadvantage of multiplying an already large and sometimes confusing v ocabulary. On the positive side, it defines a field of study in a parallel and complementary fashion to already existing ones such as "colonial history", "colonial art", "colonial economy", etc. Briefly, the notion of "colonial semiosis" reveals, as this issue of Dispositio illustrates, that language-centered colonial studies (at least Latin American and Caribbean colonial studies), are moving beyond the realm of the written word in order to incorporate the oral and non-alphabetical writing systems as well as non-verbal graphic systems."

[^150]:    564 Homi K. Bhabha, Location of Culture, 101.
    ${ }^{565}$ Homi K. Bhabha, Location of Culture, 106; also, "[n]ationalist ideology of unisonance," 134; "monoculturalism," 142.

    566 Homi K. Bhabha, Location of Culture, 149.

[^151]:    ${ }^{567}$ Homi K. Bhabha, Location of Culture, 113. Bhabha writes that "the fetish of colonial discourse is the epidermal schema" (112). Also, "race becomes the ineradicable sign of negative difference in colonial discourses" (108). Homi K. Bhabha borrows this from Frantz Fanon (1925-1961), Peau noire, masques blancs (1952), (Black skin, white masks, 1967), trans. Richard Philcox, 1st ed., new ed. (New York: Grove Press, 2008).

[^152]:    568 -philia as a suffix indicates an attraction toward something; in this case Mauro from Mauros (Roman designation of a province in Africa); -phobia as a suffix indicates a repulsion against something, usually considered an unreasonable and irrational fear; in this case it is the fear of the Mauro/Moor. This is analyzed further in chapters 3 and 4. Moor comes from Mauros, but in Granada it is primarily used to mean Muslim. Douglas Harper, ed., Online Etymology Dictionary, accessed 4 November 2015, http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/-philia and http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/-phobia.
    ${ }^{569}$ Barbara Fuchs, Exotic Nation, 10. Note the conflation of "Moor" and "Morisco": see 259, 274. (My emphasis.)

[^153]:    570 Barbara Fuchs, "Maurophilia," 280.
    571 Similar to the mysterium tremendum et fascinans explored by Rudolf Otto (The Idea of the Holy), and mysterium fascinans explored by Mircea Eliade (The Sacred and the Profane).

    572 Barbara Fuchs, Exotic Nation, 17.
    ${ }^{573}$ Barbara Fuchs, Exotic Nation, 20;also, 21, 22, 27. Barbara Fuchs (21) quotes Alain Milhou, "Desemitización," 42: the "de-Africanizing, de-judaizing, and cultural Europeanization that would become radical under the Catholic kings." Walter D. Mignolo would echo this by noting that this is a kind of "Occidentalism" which has been overshadowed as the other side of "Orientalism." Walter D. Mignolo, "Colonial and Postcolonial Discourse: Cultural Critique or Academic Colonialism?" in Latin Ameican Research Review 28, no. 3 (1993): 123.
    ${ }^{574}$ Barbara Fuchs, Exotic Nation, 22.
    575 Barbara Fuchs, "Maurophilia," 273.

[^154]:    ${ }^{576}$ Barbara Fuchs, Exotic Nation, 84; also "memory," 45; "forgetting," 85. See also Homi K. Bhabha, Location of Culture, 229-230.

    577 Barbara Fuchs, Exotic Nation, 38.
    578 Barbara Fuchs, Exotic Nation, 128. Here Barbara Fuchs cites Javier Castillo Fernández and the fact that "historiography has largely neglected the large class of assimilated moriscos...." (See Javier Castillo Fernández, "Luis Enríquez Xoaida, el primo hermano morisco del Rey Católico (análisis de un caso de falsificación histórica e integración social)," in Sharq al-Andalus 12 (1995): 235-53. See Amalia García Pedraza, Actitudes ante la muerte, 31.
    ${ }^{579}$ See Homi K. Bhabha, Location of Culture, 49-50.
    580 Barbara Fuchs, Exotic Nation, 138.

[^155]:    ${ }^{581}$ Brabara Fuchs, Exotic Nation, 138. A way for Castile to "reject its own hybridity" as proposed by Lucas A. Marchante-Aragón, "The King, the Nation, and the Moor: Imperial Spectacle and the Rejection of Hybridity in 'The Masque of the Expulsion of the Moriscos'," in Journal for Early Modern Cultural Studies 8, no. 1 (Spring/Summer, 2008): 98-133.
    ${ }^{582}$ Alain Milhou, "Desemitización," 35.
    ${ }^{583}$ Alain Milhou, "Desemitización," 36, 60.
    ${ }^{584}$ As quoted by Barbara Fuchs, Exotic Nation, 20. See Alain Milhou, "Desemitización," 38.
    ${ }^{585}$ See footnote 482.
    ${ }^{586}$ Alain Milhou, "Desemitización," 38.

[^156]:    ${ }^{587}$ Alain Milhou, "Desemitización," 39: "Incluso antes de que existiera para los mismos españoles, España existió para los demás europeos como país bien caracterizable, diferente al resto de la Cristiandad."
    ${ }^{588}$ Alain Milhou, "Desemitización," 51.

[^157]:    589 Lucas A Marchante-Aragón, "Rejection of Hybridity," 98-133.
    590 Lucas A. Marchante-Aragón, "Rejection of Hybridity." The phrase comes from the title of the article.
    591 Lucas A. Marchante-Aragón, "Rejection of Hybridity," 105.
    592 Lucas A. Marchante-Aragón, "Rejection of Hybridity," 104. Those who study literary texts and see the process of exultation of the Castilian in the peninsula seem to be very comfortable with using the "caste" terminology. For example, see Deborah Root, "Speaking Christian: Orthodoxy and Difference in SixteenthCentury Spain," Representations 23 (Summer 1988): 122; Israel Burshatin, "The Moor in the Text: Metaphor,

[^158]:    Emblem, and Silence," in Critical Inquiry 12, no. 1, "Race," Writing, and Difference, (Autumn, 1985), 98. See also Américo Castro, Spaniards, 566.
    ${ }^{593}$ Lucas A. Marchante-Aragón, "Rejection of Hybridity," 105; also, 116.
    594 Lucas A. Marchante-Aragón, "Rejection of Hybridity," 112; also, 115, 117.
    ${ }^{595}$ Lucas A. Marchante-Aragón, "Rejection of Hybridity," 114. It is not the other who is threatening: see Homi K. Bhabha, Location of Culture, 573 (as quoted earlier in section 2.3).
    ${ }^{596}$ Lucas A. Marchante-Aragón, "Rejection of Hybridity," 101; also FN16, FN18 in the same article.
    ${ }^{597}$ Lucas A. Marchante-Aragón, "Rejection of Hybridity," 123. Although Deborah Root writes in English she opts for the Spanish-language word españolidad instead of Spanishness. See Deborah Root, "Speaking Christian," 122, 132. Israel Burshatin, "Playing the Moor: Parody and Performance in Lope de Vega's El Primer Fajardo," PMLA 107, no. 3 (1992): 575, using the example of the figure of Fajardo shows how these subjects cannot claim Spanish identity: "The would-be Fajardo has also dismembered the notion that any Moor can ever again claim Spanish identity."

    598 Lucas A. Marchante-Aragón, "Rejection of Hybridity," 124, 125. Israel Burshatin, "Written on the Body," 422, also uses the idea of "monological."

[^159]:    ${ }^{599}$ Lucas A. Marchante-Aragón, "Rejection of Hybridity," FN19. Analysis of Deborah Root in her article "Speaking Christian."
    ${ }^{600}$ Deborah Root, "Speaking Christian," 118: "heresy could function as a social and even genealogical category. Religious deviance by Spaniards of Muslim descent came to be denoted by cultural deviance, or heterodoxy in respect to customs, and eventually by genealogical deviance, or heterodoxy in respect to lineage, or 'purity of blood'."

    601 Deborah Root, "Speaking Christian," 120
    602 Deborah Root, "Speaking Christian," 124.

[^160]:    ${ }^{603}$ The phrase "indeterminability of faith" is Deborah Root's phrase, as found in "Speaking Christian," 129, 130.

[^161]:    604 Historical, methodological, discursive, and historiographical.

[^162]:    ${ }^{605}$ Homi K. Bhabha, Location of Culture, 78; also 128. Homi K. Bhabha writes, "Metonymy, a figure of contiguity that substitutes a part for a whole (an eye for an I), must not be read as a form of simple substitution or equivalence."

    606 Homi K. Bhabha, Location of Culture, 37; also referred to as a "third space," 54, 56.
    ${ }^{607}$ Murray Knowles and Rasamund Moon, Introducing Metaphor (Routledge: London and New York, 2006), 47-48.
    ${ }^{608}$ Homi K. Bhabha's metonymy (Location of Culture 78, 128) is like Barbara Fuchs' synecdoche (Exotic Nation, 2, 106, 139), and both are related to the idea of (re)inscription and (re)construction. Def. Synecdoche [si-nek-duh-kee] noun, Rhetoric. 1. a figure of speech in which a part is used for the whole or the whole for a part, the special for the general or the general for the special, as in ten sail for ten ships or a Croesus for a rich man. Origin of synecdoche: Medieval Latin, Greek, 1350-1400: synekdoché́, equivalent to syn- syn- + ekdochế act of receiving from another, equivalent to ek-ec- + -dochē, noun derivative of déchesthai to receive. synecdoche. Dictionary.com Unabridged. Random House, Inc. http://www.dictionary.com/browse/synecdoche. Accessed 17 October 2016.

[^163]:    ${ }^{609}$ Murray Knowles and Rasamund Moon, Introducing Metaphor, 54.
    ${ }^{610}$ Murray Knowles and Rasamund Moon, Introducing Metaphor, 58, 116.
    ${ }^{611}$ Alun Muslow, Companion, 30.
    612 Alun Muslow, Companion, 30.

[^164]:    ${ }^{613}$ Such as New Spain and Valencia, and after 1568-71.
    614 The numbering goes to 83 because the table omits \#72.

[^165]:    ${ }^{615}$ Jon Cowans, ed., Early Modern Spain, Document \#34, 145-146.

[^166]:    ${ }^{616}$ Antonio Garrido Aranda, Organización, Appendix 1, 262. "Inocencio, Obispo, siervo de los siervos de Dios, para perpétua memoria y propaganda de la fe católica, reunida nuestra curia y mirando aumento de la religión cristiana y la salvación de las almas y naciones bárbaras, la prisión de los infieles y deseando fervientemente su conversión no cesamos de continuar nuestros apostólicos favores y gracias a los reyes y príncipes católicos para que insistan en el mayor cuidado de la gloria de Dios, cuya casa han aceptado y para que conozcan los ruegos de la Santa Sede para la salvación de sus almas, les concedemos gustosamente..."

    617 Antonio Garrido Aranda, Organización, Appendix 1, 263. "por adquirir en los dichos lugares en las que con su laudable vida, conversión de almas y exhortación a la vida recta..."

[^167]:    ${ }^{618}$ Antonio Garrido Aranda, Organización, Appendix 2, 265. "por el ejemplo y predicación de los religiosos de dichos monasterios fieles a Cristo sean convertidos e instruidos a la fé cristiana los habitantes del reino de Granada, tras abandonar el mahometano error."

    619 Antonio Garrido Aranda, Organización, Appendix 3, 266. "pero como según la petición señalaba que habéis reconquistado muchas tierras y lugares del reino de Granada, del poder de los moros, con grandes peligros y trabajos y no sin derramamiento de sangre cristiana y las habéis añadido al campo de la fé católica."
    ${ }^{620}$ Jon Cowans, ed., Early Modern Spain, 17. Spanish from Luis del Mármol Carvajal: "Que no consentirán que los cristianos entren en las mezquitas de los moros donde hacen su zalá sin licencia de los alfaquís, y el que de otra manera entrare será castigado por ello."

[^168]:    621 Jon Cowans, ed., Early Modern Spain, 18. Spanish from Luis del Mármol Carvajal: "Que no se permitirá que ninguna persona maltrate de obra ni de palabra a los cristianos o cristianas que antes destas capitulaciones se hobieren vuelto moros; y que si algún moro tuviere alguna renegada por mujer, no será apremiada a ser cristiana contra su voluntad, sino que será interrogada en presencia de cristianos y de moros, y se seguirá su voluntad; y lo mesmo se entenderá con los niños y niñas nacidos de cristiana y moro."

    622 Jon Cowans, ed., Early Modern Spain, 18. Spanish from Luis del Mármol Carvajal: "Que ningún moro ni mora serán apremiados a ser cristianos contra su voluntad; y que si alguna doncella o casada o viuda, por razón de algunos amores, se quisiere tornar cristiana, tampoco será recibida hasta ser interrogada; y si hubiere sacado alguna ropa o joyas de casa de sus padres o de otra parte, se restituirá a su dueño, y serán castigados los culpados por justicia."

    623 Jon Cowans, ed., Early Modern Spain, 19.

[^169]:    ${ }^{624}$ Alain Milhou, "Desemitización," 35-60.

[^170]:    ${ }^{625}$ Documents 1-76 (72 missing) and 77-83, respectively.
    626 The books used are: 1) Antonio Gallego y Burín, Los Moriscos del Reino de Granada según el Sínodo de Guadix de 1554; 2) Antonio Garrido Aranda, Moriscos e Indios: Precedentes Hispánicos de la Evangelización en México, and 3) Organización de la Iglesia en el Reino de Granada y su proyección en Indias, Siglo XVI; 4) Rafael Marín López, La Iglesia de Granada en el siglo XVI. Documentos para su historia (Granada: Universidad de Granada, 1996), and 5) Un epistolario del arzobispo de Granada Gaspar de Ávalos (BN. MS 19419): estudios, regesta, documentos (Granada: Universidad de Granada, 2006); and 6) El Concilio Provincial de Granada en 1565: Edición crítica del malogrado concilio del Arzobispo Guerrero, ed. Ignacio Pérez de Heredia y Valle, Publicaciones del Instituto Español de Historia Eclesiastica, Subsidia 26 (Roma: Iglesia nacional española, 1990).

[^171]:    ${ }^{627}$ See 1-3, 5 above.
    628 There are instances in which there is ambiguity in the date of the texts. The chronology of the source material is kept, but the ambiguity is noted in a footnote.

[^172]:    ${ }^{629}$ Documents 17, 30, 38, 42, 43, 46, 47, 58, 68, 74.
    630 Newly converted of this kingdom or of Granada: Documents 9.1, 10.1, 33.1, 38.9, 40.4, 41.1; Newly converted of the Moors: 29.3, 29.6-7, 29.26, 29.28-29, 29.31, 30.13, 30.20, 34.1, 58.1-2, 58.6, 63.1-2, 71.1, 74.1.
    ${ }^{631}$ New Christian of the Moors: 29.22, 58.4, 58.16, 64.24.

[^173]:    ${ }^{632}$ New Christians of the Mudéjares: 61.7, 64.23; newly converted Mudéjares 35.1, 36.1.
    ${ }^{633}$ The use of the term "mudéjares" in this document is intriguing. The baptism of these former mudéjares occurred prior to 1501, when all Muslims in Granada were ordered to be baptized or be exiled. Yet, in all other instances referring to people in Granada they are referred to as moros. This leads to questions regarding whether these Muslims prior to their baptism had migrated from another region of Spain and at some point, after their migration chose baptism? And/or, does the use of the term has something to do with the fact that they were Islamic legal scholars (alfaquies)? Or is it relating to elites who may have chosen baptism prior to 1501 for the privileges it purported to grant? Or would the use of the term be an insertion?

[^174]:    6358 October 1611 and 19 October 1613.
    636 Document 29, 198-199. "que los nuevamente convertidos de ella y de las otras ciudades, villas e lugares de su arzobispado, habiendo recibido agua del bautismo de Espíritu Santo, habían hecho y cometido y hacían de cada día muchas cosas graves contra nuestra santa fe católica, siguiendo su dañada secta primera de Mahoma y a sus errores y ceremonias, de lo cual fueron dados algunos memoriales y peticiones, y para proveer el castigo de lo pasado y remediar lo porvenir [personas deben nombrase para que] se informasen en qué cosas y casos los nuevamente convertidos de moros en el dicho arzobispado seguían la dañada secta de Mahoma y sus errores y ceremonias."

[^175]:    ${ }^{637}$ See Document 29.7; Document 29.8; and Antonio Gallego y Burín, Moriscos del reino de Granada, Appendix 31, 201, respectively.

    638 For slaves, see Document 29.11: "shall not have as slaves any black or white Christian." See also Document 29.10: prohibition of owning Muslim slaves; Document 29.12: prohibition of having an old Christian bachelor (mozo) in their service. See also Vincent Barletta, ed., in the analysis of Francisco Núñez Muley, Memorandum, 44-46; text of the Francisco Núñez Muley, Memorandum, 89-ff. For Arabic, see Document 29.13, 29.15-17; Document 30.12. For clothing, see Document 29.18-21. For henna, see Document 29.22; Document 30.10. For butchering, see Document 29:30-31. For names, see Document 29.33-34; Document 30.11.

[^176]:    ${ }^{639}$ See Francisco Núñez Muley, Memorandum, 59-64: 90,000 Ducats. See Section 1.3.
    640 See Documents 9-11 and 13-16.
    ${ }^{641}$ The term "helches" is not found in the primary documents studied for this project. See section related to footnote 305.
    ${ }^{642}$ Barbara Fuchs, "Maurophilia," 280.

[^177]:    ${ }^{643}$ See Francisco Núñez Muley, Memorandum, 71-73.
    644 See Document 22.
    ${ }_{645}$ See Documents 9 and 13.

[^178]:    ${ }^{646}$ Antonio Gallego y Burín, Moriscos del Reino de Granada, Appendix 24, 190-191: "como en algunas villas e lugares de las alcarias no hay cristianos viejos." "que los dichos nuevamente convertidos e cualique de ellos pudiesen ser e fuesen padrinos en cualesquier cosas que fuese necesario, pues que ellos ya eran cristianos e tornados a nuestra santa fe católica."

    647 See Document 11.3.
    ${ }^{648}$ Documents $9.1,9.3,10.1-2,10.4,10.5(x 2), 10.6-7,11.1,11.3,13.2(x 2), 14.2-3,14.8,15.1-2$, 16.3(x2), 16.6, 16.7(x3), 16.8, 17.7, 17.10. 22.2, 22.3(x2), 22.4, 22.6, 23.2,23.3, 23.6-9, 23.11-12, 19.12, 29.21, 30.3-6, 30.8-9, 30.17-18, 30.28, 30.29(x2), 35.2, 38.4(x2), 38.6, 42.2(x2), 43.1, 43.2(x3), 43.3-4, 43.5(x2), 43.7, 43.8(x2), 43.9, 43.10(x2), 43.11(x2), 44.3, 44.12, 44.20-21, 46.1(x2), 46.4(x2), 48.2, 48.4(x2), 51.3, 61.4, 64.10, 64.12(x2), 64.13, 74.3-4, 74.6-7, 74.11, 74.13, 74.15, 74.18(x2), 74.21, 74.26, 74.28-29, 74.32-34, 74.42, 74.45, 74.46(x4), 64.51, 76.5, 76.17, 81.1.

    649 There are at least 17 occurrences in 10 documents to "Christians" without further qualification. These need to be understood within the specific context of the texts in which they appear. See 3.11, 3.17, 4.3, $4.10,10.7,13.1,16.1,26.2,30.23,30.27,30.29,32.6-8,64.11,64.13,76.11$.

[^179]:    ${ }^{650}$ Documents 6, 10-12, 14-17, 21, 29-30, 32, 35-38, 43-44, 48, 58, 65, 69-70, 75-79, 81-83.
    ${ }^{651}$ Documents 6, 21, 29-30, 35, 38, 43-44, 48, 58, 65, 70, 75-79, 81-83.
    652 Documents 30.9, 35.1-2, 38.7, 48.4, 76.5, 76.13.

[^180]:    ${ }^{653}$ Documents 10, 11-12, 14-17, 29-30, 35-37, 69, 75-76.
    65437 times compared to 248.
    ${ }^{655}$ See Chapter 4.
    656 Documents 29-30, 35, 75-76.
    657 Morisco (n.) in Documents 29.27, 30.9, 30.18x2, 35.1-2, 38.7, 43.9-10, 44.6, 48.4x2, 58.11, 58.13, and 65.3; Newly converted or new Christian - Documents 29-24 times, 30-16 times, 35-once, 38-9 times, 435 times, 44-4 times, 48-once, 58-9 times, and 65-twice.

    658 Documents 30.9, 35.1-2, 38.7, 48.4.
    659 Documents 29.27, 43.9-10, 44.6, 58.11, 58.13, and 65.3.
    ${ }^{660}$ Documents $30.18 \times 2$ and $48.4 \times 2$ - the first instance of 48.4 was specific to a female morisca.
    ${ }^{661}$ Documents 10-12, 14-17, 29-30, 35, and 37.

[^181]:    662 Documents 10-11, 12, 14-17, 29-30, 35, 37-38, 43-44, 48, 58, 65.

[^182]:    663 In order, Documents 21,58, and 58. Drunkenness is an issue that does not only appear with the category morisco (21.1); it is referred to about new Christians three times (2.1, 2.2 and 7.1 ), and to the newly converted four times (17.11-13, 18.1).
    ${ }^{664}$ See Jon Cowans, ed., Early Modern Spain, Document 34, 145-146.

[^183]:    665 As "morisco" increases "moro" decreases.
    ${ }^{666}$ See Document 29.10. Antonio Gallego y Burín, Moriscos del reino de Granada, Appendix 31, 201: "Asimismo por nuestra carta está proveído y mandado agora [sic] nuevamente que ninguno de los nuevamente convertidos no tengan en sus casas ni en sus haciendas esclavos moros; mandamos que así se guarde." This sentence is followed by the prohibition to have black or white Christian slaves or bachelor Christian servants. See also footnote 638.

[^184]:    ${ }^{667}$ See Document 75.11. Antonio Gallego y Burín, Moriscos del Reino de Granada, Appendix 60, 274: "y cuanto a los gacís...y que los moriscos no tuviesen esclavos gacís, aunque tuviesen licencias para poderlos tener." Gacís were Moors (Muslims) from Africa that came after 1492.
    ${ }^{668}$ See Document 75.13. Antonio Gallego y Burín, Moriscos del Reino de Granada, Appendix 60, 274: "Esta fue la resolución que se tomó en aquella Junta, aunque algunos fueron de parecer que los capítulos no se executasen [sic] todos juntos, por estar los moriscos tan casados con sus costumbres, y porque no lo sentirían tanto yéndoselas quitando poco a poco."

[^185]:    ${ }^{669}$ It is understood that these are and were not always distinct spheres.
    670 Documents 11.1-2, 12.1-2, 14.1-4, 15.1-2, 30.7, 35.1-3, 36.1 (x2), 75.3-4, 76.8.
    ${ }^{671}$ See section on clothing in Francisco Núñez Muley, Memorandum, 69, 71-73.
    ${ }^{672}$ In some of the documents where the term "morisco" is not used as a general term, it may still be used specifically for women, using the term "moriscas." A future study could be to find the textual evidence on how women were referred to in the texts (and related changes) and whether it can be ascertained if, when gender can be determined, if women were more likely to be referred to as moriscas? Examples of this are found in the Memorandum and is raised given the concern with women and their clothing.

[^186]:    674 This is also seen in Document 36 where the "wives and daughters of the mudéjares of this city newly converted and the captive women...had abandoned the costume of old Christians [f.], and don that of the moriscas...and in this costume they commit and do many crimes."
    ${ }^{675}$ See Document 36.
    ${ }^{676}$ Documents 35.1-2, 38.7, 76.5, 76.13.
    677 Documents 14.4, 14.6, 14.8, 25.1, 29.18, 29.20, 75.4, 76.13.
    ${ }^{678}$ Marlotas $12: 1$ and 69.3; Almalafas 14.4, 14.6-7, 15.1, 29.18-19, 33.2, 38.3, 75.2, 75.4. Face covering and almalafas only appear together in three documents and four entries: 14.4, 14.6, 29.18, and 75.4.

[^187]:    ${ }^{679}$ Francisco Núñez Muley, Memorandum, 71; also 72, 73.
    ${ }_{680}$ See footnote 670.

[^188]:    ${ }^{681}$ See Document 75.2 and 75.5.
    682 See Introduction, footnote 8.
    ${ }^{683}$ María Elena Martínez, Genealogical Fictions: Limpieza de Sangre, Racial Violence, and Gendered Power in Early Colonial México (Stanford University Press, 2008), 36: she states that "Moor" was a pejorative term.

[^189]:    684 Document 1.
    ${ }^{685}$ Document 9.3. This passage refers to the disqualification of baptized descendants of former Muslims or Jews to be godparents to other descendants of these same communities: "no lo pueda ser ningún nuevamente convertido de moro ni judío."

    686 Document 3; similar language is used in Document 4.
    ${ }^{687}$ See Document 3.3-5. "Item que los dichos moros de la dicha Morería de Baza que se convirtieren a nuestra santa fe católica, sean libres y exentos de pedido e moneda e moneda forera e otros servicios, según que los otros vecinos cristianos de la dicha çibdad [sic] de Baza." In a 1517 document, the fact that conversion/baptism removed the "derechos moriscos" is reiterated with respect to "zambras e bodas e desposorios" because "dar gracia a los dichos moros que se convirtiesen a su santa fe católica...como verdaderos cristianos, les hicieron merced de les mandar quitar todos los derechos moriscos... [que] se llevaban en tiempo de los dichos moros..." Document 19.2-3. Again in Document 20.1: "de ciertos derechos que solían pagar en tiempo de moros."

[^190]:    ${ }^{688}$ See Francisco Núñez Muley, Memorandum, 59-64. There was mention of yearly taxes paid starting in 1518 (21,000 ducats) and, later in 1526, an agreement for another 15,000 ducats per year. These were taxes that were not paid by other Christians.
    ${ }^{689}$ Document 3 and Document 10, respectively. "Pazcan con sus ganados por todos los términos e partes que solían pacer con ellos en tiempo de los reyes moros." And, "degüellan algunas veces las carnes como solían en tiempos de moros." Another example is found in Document 17.3: "para que sean instruidos en la doctrina y dexen los usos y ceremonias que solían e usaban siendo moros"; "that they be instructed in the doctrine and abandon the uses and ceremonies that they were accustomed to and used when they were Moors."
    ${ }^{690}$ Documents 9.3, 29.3, 29.6-7, 29.22, 29.26, 29.28-29, 29.31, 30.13, 30.20, 34.1, 58.1-2, 58.4, 58.6, 58.16, 64.24, 63.1-2, 71.1, 73.1, 74.1.
    ${ }^{691}$ Documents 3.9, 10.1-2, 11.2, 16.1, 19.1, 19.3, 20.1-2, 27.1, 44.10, 47.2, 48.1, 75.2, 75.5 .

[^191]:    692 Documents 11.1, 11.3, 14.2, 17.8, 29.33-34, 30.23, 37.1, 43.1, 44.18-19, 58.2-3, 61.5(x2), 63.7, 64.14(x2), 64.16-18, 74.26, 74.35, 74.46, 75.8, 76.16.
    ${ }^{693}$ Documents $1.1,3.1-4,3.17-18,5.1,6.2,17.2,19.2,29.23,29.25,30.12,31.1,44.17,48.1,50.2,51.2$, 58.15, 63.3, 68.1.

    694 Document 3.13(x2) and 4.7(x2).
    695 See Appendix 2 for tallies.
    696 Sentiments echoed by Américo Castro. See footnote 538.

[^192]:    697 The reference from 44.8, although tallied, has to do with residence for tax purposes, rather than being native to the Kingdom of Granada as the remainder of the references.

    698 Francisco Núñez Muley, Memorandum, 20.
    699 Document 74.3-4, 74.6.
    ${ }_{700}$ Document 76.1-2, 76.4, 76.6-7, 76.9-10, 76.12-13, 76.15-16, 76.18-21, 76.24; Francisco Núñez Muley, Memorandum, 55, 57, 58(x2), 59-60, 64-65, 67(x3), 68, 69(x2), 70, 71(x2), 72, 75(x3), 76, 77(x2), 82, 84, 88, 89(x2), 90(x2), 91-93.
    ${ }^{701}$ Francisco Núñez Muley, Memorandum, 57, 62-63, 66, and 77.

[^193]:    ${ }^{702}$ At 37 times compared to 248 or once for every 6.7 occurrences.
    ${ }^{703}$ For "natives" see footnote 700. For "new Christian," "new convert," and "newly converted" see Francisco Núñez Muley, Memorandum, $71 \times 2,72,73,76,80,82 \times 2,84 \times 2,87 \times 2$, and $95 \times 2$. For "morisco" (n.) see Francisco Núñez Muley, Memorandum, 60, 68, $71 \times 2,82 \times 2,90$, and 99. Ratio of once for ever 4.7 occurrences.
    ${ }^{704}$ Francisco Núñez Muley, Memorandum, 81.

[^194]:    705 Francisco Núñez Muley, Memorandum, 85.
    ${ }^{706}$ Francisco Núñez Muley, Memorandum, discusses the following in similar terms as clothing: zambras "customs rooted in our kingdom and province" (78), "nothing in it that went against the Holy Catholic Faith" (79); baths (82-85); women covering their faces (87); Moorish names and surnames (88-ff.); owning of slaves (89-91); the Arabic language (92-ff.)

    707 Francisco Núñez Muley, Memorandum, 64.
    708 Francisco Núñez Muley, Memorandum, 69.
    ${ }^{709}$ Francisco Núñez Muley, Memorandum, 70: "All the kingdoms of Castile, and all the other kingdoms and provinces, have their own styles of dress...and yet they are all Christians. In like manner, the style of dress and clothing in this kingdom is very different from the clothing of the Moroccan and Barbary Muslims... and what they wear in Turkey is wholly unlike anything worn by the Moroccans, and yet they are all Muslims. It follows that one cannot establish or state that the clothing of the new converts is that of the Muslims. This argument contained in the decree is also rendered invalid by the fact that Christians who live in the holy city of Jerusalem-and that whole kingdom is made up of Christians and men learned in the

[^195]:    faith—have been seen in Granada wearing clothing and headdresses like what is worn in the Maghreb and resembling in no way what is worn in Castile-and yet they are Christians."

    710 Francisco Núñez Muley, Memorandum, 71 . See also, 72 and 73: "For the past 35 to 40 years, the men here have worn Castilian-style clothing and footwear with the hope that His Majesty might show them the mercy of granting them certain liberties, relieving them of their tax burden, or giving them permission to carry arms. Well, we have seen nothing like this."

[^196]:    712 Francisco Núñez Muley, Memorandum, 71.
    ${ }^{713}$ With respect to Document 27, see also 27.2 and 27.3; other reinforcements that they were Christian are found in documents 11, 17, 19, 22, and 62.
    ${ }^{714}$ Gaspar de Ávalos believed that the King's campaign in North Africa would be successful and that Africa would be brought under the Christian realm. See documents 51 and 53. Gaspar the Ávalos (14851545) was first elevated to bishop of the Diocese of Guadix y Baza in 1524 and then to the Archbishopric of Granada in 1529 until 1542. He died as the Archbishop of Santiago de Compostela in 1545.

[^197]:    ${ }^{715}$ See Antonio Garrido Aranda, Moriscos e Indios, Ch. 4: 87-105.
    ${ }^{716}$ J. H. Elliott has an assessment of this in "España y el mundo transatlántico: pasado y presente," in Cuadernos De Pensamiento Político 36 (October-December 2012): 43-58.

[^198]:    ${ }^{717}$ Apéndice á los Concilios, 46 and 50: with regard to access to the Holy Eucharist: "salvo ser Indios, y nuevamente convertidos y hallase que estos tales tienen capacidad..."; with regard to their humility and obedience: "Que por quanto en estos Naturales, y nuevamente convertidos a nuestra Santa Fe Católica se halla mucha obediencia, y humildad..."
    ${ }^{718}$ Apéndice á los Concilios.
    719 Apéndice á los Concilios.

[^199]:    ${ }^{720}$ Concilios Provinciales (II), 201: "la gente ignorante, especialmente los Indios nuevamente convertidos [no tengan estos libros]."
    ${ }^{721}$ See Document 74.3-4, 74.6.
    722 There was one mention of mudéjares (74.15); as well as one mention of a captive Moor (74.21).
    ${ }^{723}$ Concilios Provinciales (II): for indios see Ch. 2, 5, 9, 11, 21x2, 23, 24, 25, 26x2 and nine times in the final remarks; for naturales see Ch. $2,7,8 \times 3,19,24$, and once in the final remarks; and, for newly converted see Ch. 23.
    ${ }^{724}$ Concilios Provinciales (II), 201.
    ${ }^{725}$ Concilios Provinciales (II): see Ch. 2, 5, 25, 26x2, and in the final remarks twice.
    ${ }^{726}$ Concilios Provinciales (II): see Introduction and Ch. 27, "Por cuanto una de las cosas porque principalmente se celebran los Santos Concilios, es para la reformación de los Fieles Cristianos..."
    ${ }^{727}$ Concilios Provinciales (II): see Introduction, Ch. 2, 13, 27, 28, and once in the final remarks.

[^200]:    ${ }^{728}$ Concilios Provinciales (II): see Ch. 23 and 8, respectively.
    ${ }^{729}$ Concilios Provinciales (II): access to confession Spaniards/Indios (Ch. 5), Naturales (Ch. 7); Naturales/Indios/Spaniards did not have to pay for sacraments (Ch. 2(x2)).
    ${ }^{730}$ Concilios Provinciales (II): Ch. 2, 188: Esto no prohíbe "limosnas, que los Fieles Cristianos, así Indios, como Españoles, de su mera, propia, y espontanea voluntad les quieran dar...".
    ${ }^{731}$ Concilios Provinciales (II): see Ch. 11.
    ${ }^{732}$ Concilios Provinciales (II): see Ch. 21.
    ${ }^{733}$ Concilios Provinciales (II): see Ch. 8, 9, and final remarks.
    ${ }^{734}$ Concilios Provinciales (II): see Ch. $24 \times 2$.
    ${ }^{735}$ Concilios Provinciales (II): see Ch. 25 and final remarks.
    ${ }^{736}$ Concilios Provinciales (II): See the final remarks.

[^201]:    ${ }^{737}$ Antonio Garrido Aranda, Moriscos e Indios, Appendix 3, 117-ff. (thesis Document 32); Antonio Gallego y Burín, Moriscos del reino de Granada, Appendix 4, 161-ff. There is no date for this document, but it would have to be after the rebellions and before his death, somewhere between 1501 and 1507. The requirement of old Christian godparents can be seen in Documents 9, 13, 22; Antonio Gallego y Burin, Moriscos del Reino de Granada, Appendices 10, 14, 24. Also in weddings: Document 9.3. First introduced in Section 1.3, and also discussed earlier in this Chapter in Section 3.1.

[^202]:    738 See Document 43.
    ${ }^{739}$ See Document 38.4; see also 48.4.

[^203]:    ${ }^{740}$ Document 43.4; see also Documents 44.20-21, 48.4. One of the perceived impediments to these intermarriages was that the property of the newly converted could be confiscated by the Inquisition. It is proposed that "without confiscation, the old Christians may let their daughter marry them and take them for sons in law, which would be very important to their conversion and doctrine, and it is believed that the sons and grandsons would better take the doctrine from Christian fathers and mothers" (64.13).
    ${ }^{741}$ See Antonio Garrido Aranda, Moriscos e Indios, 95, 99; See Concilio Provincial de Granada, 157; See Concilios Provinciales (I and II), 4 and 138.
    ${ }^{742}$ See Document 30.16-17: "Pero no se descuiden de trabajar como todos los cristianos, así nuevos como viejos e sus hijos e hijas concurran a la misa y sermones e se confiesen cada año e reciban el santo sacramento y estén en la iglesia con toda devoción e buen orden, descubiertas las caras e haciendo las obras de cristianos. E encargad mucho esto a los curas de las iglesias, e especialmente tengan mucho cuidado de hacerlos confesar, e que así mismo tengan cuidado de saber si los cristianos viejos van a misa, e no se haga diferencia en la pena de los unos a los otros."

[^204]:    ${ }^{743}$ Concilios Provinciales (II) Ch. 26, 203: "se mandó, que todo Fiel Cristiano pagase los Diezmos, como lo manda Dios, y la Santa Madre Iglesia, declaramos, que no fue nuestra intención obligar a los Indios, sino a los Españoles, a así los dichos Diezmos generales nunca se han cobrado, ni ahora se cobran, ni de mandan a cobrar de los dichos Indios, excepto los diezmos de las tres cosas, que están mandados pagar por la Executoria Real, atento a que somos informados, que S. M. entiende con Su Santidad en dar remedio, y orden con estas Iglesias, y Ministros de ellas, en lo tocante a los dichos Diezmos generales." Citing Ch. 90, Concilios Provinciales (I), 166.
    ${ }^{744}$ Francisco Núñez Muley, Memorandum, 59-60, 63-65, recounts all the payments the Granadans made.

[^205]:    ${ }^{745}$ Concilios Provinciales (I): 67. See footnote 286.
    ${ }^{746}$ Concilios Provinciales (I): 68-69. See footnote 285.
    ${ }^{747}$ Concilios Provinciales (I): 69. See footnote 286.

[^206]:    ${ }^{748}$ See Leslie Rout, African Experience, 126-ff. Colin M. MacLachlan and Jaime E. Rodriguez O., Forging of the Cosmic Race, 199. The equation of "white" to "Spanish" is just as constructed as all the categories of the Sistema.
    ${ }^{749}$ See footnote 9.

[^207]:    ${ }^{750}$ R. Douglas Cope, The Limits of Racial Domination: Plebeian Society in Colonial México City, 16601720 (Madison, WI: The University of Wisconsin Press, 1994), 24. See also, Colin M. MacLachlan and Jaime E. Rodriguez O., Cosmic Race, 199.
    ${ }^{751}$ Although the union could be between Spaniards (male or female) and mulattos (male or female), it is biased toward male Spaniards.
    ${ }^{752}$ Edgar F. Love, "Marriage Patterns of Persons of African Descent in a Colonial México City Parish," in The Hispanic American Historical Review 51, no. 1 (February 1971): 81. See also, Wendy E. Phillips, "Representations of the Black Body in Mexican Visual Art: Evidence of an African Historical Presence or a Cultural Myth?" in Journal of Black Studies 39, no. 5 (May 2009): 771; María Elena Martínez, "Black Blood of New Spain," 479-520; see 481 n. 4 regarding the term "mulata morisca"; see also 501, and 507 n.63.

[^208]:    ${ }^{753}$ María Elena Martínez, "Black Blood of New Spain," 480; see also, 507: "striking parallels between anti-Semitic and anti-black discourses in the early Modern Hispanic Atlantic world."

    754 María Elena Martínez, "Black Blood of New Spain," 482.
    ${ }^{755}$ María Elena Martínez, "Black Blood of New Spain," 486. See footnote 9.
    ${ }^{756}$ Because of the different treatment of Amerindians and Africans, María Elena Martínez, "Black Blood of New Spain," 514-515, continues, "Yet, the discourse of limpieza de sangre marked the native and the black populations differently, for, at least in New Spain, the latter was classified as impure more frequently and systematically. Blacks were the quintessential foreign element that, like 'Jewishness,' could not be fully assimilated into Spanish colonial society or unto Spanish Old Christian blood itself." This has to do with the

[^209]:    categorization of Amerindians as Gentiles (without Jewish taint) and Africans (Blacks) has having the Muslim taint and being infidels.

    757 James Lockhart, Spanish Peru, 1532-1560: A Social History, 2nd ed. (Madison: The University of Wisconsin Press, 1994), 170.

    758 James Lockhart, Spanish Perú, 222.
    759 James Lockhart, Spanish Perú, 223.

[^210]:    ${ }^{760}$ María Elena Martínez, "Language, Genealogy, and Classification," 32.
    ${ }^{761}$ See footnote 9; see also, David M. Goldenberg, Curse of Ham: Race and Slavery in Early Judaism, Christianity, and Islam (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 2009), 1, 168, 170, 178.

    762 See footnotes 8 and 9: see especially the modern association in Greek of Moor with "blackness." See also María Elena Martínez, "Language, Genealogy, and Classification," 32.
    ${ }^{763}$ María Elena Martínez, "Language, Genealogy, and Classification," 33.

[^211]:    ${ }^{764}$ Francisco Clapera (1746-1810); Luis Berrueco (18 ${ }^{\text {th }}$ c.); Juan Patricio Morlete Ruiz (b. 1713-c. 1772); Miguel Cabrera (c. 1695-1768); José Joaquín Magón (18 ${ }^{\text {th }}$ c.); José de Ibarra (1685-1756); Andrés de Islas (18 ${ }^{\text {th }}$ c.); Juan Rodríguez Juárez (1675-1728); José de Páez (c. 1720-1790); José de Bustos (18 ${ }^{\text {th }}$ c.); Ramón Torres (18 $8^{\text {th }} \mathrm{c}$.); Buenaventura José Guiol (18 ${ }^{\text {th }} \mathrm{c}$.); Mariano Guerrero ( $18^{\text {th }} \mathrm{c}$.); José de Alcíbar (1730-1803).
    ${ }^{765}$ Ilona Katzew, Casta Painting: Image of Race in Eighteenth-Century Mexico (New Haven: Yale University Press, 2004); see also, Ilona Katzew, ed., Una visión del México del siglo de las luces: la codificación de Joaquín Antonio de Basarás: Origen, costumbres y estado presente de mexicanos y filipinos, 1763 (México, D. F.: Landucci, c2006).

    766 R. Douglas Cope, Limits of Racial Domination, 24. See footnote 750.
    ${ }^{767}$ For example, there are seven different combinations in the paintings that produce the category "chino": 1) Spanish + Mulato/a; 2) Barcino + Mulato; 3) Lobo + African; 4) Amerindian + No Te Entiendo; 5) Amerindian + Barcino; 6) Cambujo + Chamizo; 7) Grifo + torna atras.

[^212]:    768 In one definition of chino, 50\% Amerindian and 50\% African it can be equated to one definition of lobo. Another connotation of the word chino is with Asian.
    ${ }^{769}$ María Elena Martínez, "Language, Genealogy, and Classification," 41. The notion "that reproduction between different castas produced new castas, that black blood was more damaging to Spanish lineages than native blood, and that the descendants of Spanish-Indian unions could, if they continued to reproduce with Spaniards, claim limpieza de sangre." See also 42: the principle that native blood could be "redeemed"; 154, "the descendants of Indians could become Old Christians by demonstrating, for several generations, their devotion to the faith, and by reproducing with 'pure' Spaniards."

    770 Such as tente en el aire from calpamulato and cambujo; or no te entiendo and cambujo; or Spanish and torna atrás; or Amerindian and cambujo; or Amerindian and torna atrás; or mulato and gíbaro; or albarazado and salta atrás; or grifo que es tente en el aire from Amerindian and lobo; or lobo tente en el aire from mulato and mestizo.

[^213]:    ${ }^{771}$ María Elena Martínez, "Language, Genealogy, and Classification," 30; also 244.
    ${ }^{772}$ María Elena Martínez, "Language, Genealogy, and Classification," 33.
    ${ }^{773}$ María Elena Martínez, "Language, Genealogy, and Classification," 33.
    774 James Lockhart, Spanish Peru, 223. Based on the analysis of "morisca" before, women could both pass or be problematic. Perhaps these two discursive positions are in fact related, and the problematic "moriscas" need to be pointed out.
    ${ }^{775}$ Antonio Garrido Aranda, Moriscos e Indios (2013), 126: "Parece paradójico que cuando el problema morisco adquiría tintes protagónicos y dramáticos en la Península, iba desapareciendo toda referencia a esa minoría en América, como no fuera en las Reales Cedulas, que reproducían una y otra vez los deseos del poder, con el mandamiento de devolución a España a todo morisco hallado en aquellos lugares."

[^214]:    ${ }^{776}$ Antonio Garrido Aranda, Moriscos e Indios (2013), 127: "...argumentar la existencia de esclavos blancos en Indias, y presuponiendo, con gran verosimilitud, que pertenecía en origen a la cultura islámica o a la aborigen canaria, supondría una influencia de las pautas musulmanas o paganas en el Nuevo Mundo. La presencia de blancos en el trafico esclavista del siglo XVI, de acuerdo con las licencias expedidas por la Casa de la Contratación de Sevilla, se documenta a partir de 1532, y permanece hasta 1540, desapareciendo tan bruscamente como se inició, aunque encontré alguna que otra referencia a esclavas moriscas hacia los años setenta."
    ${ }^{777}$ Antonio Garrido Aranda, Moriscos e Indios (2013), 142: "La primera conclusión que hay que resaltar, ya apuntada como hipótesis en el preámbulo, es la escasa incidencia en términos numéricos del Islam en general y de los moriscos en particular en la Nueva España. Menos del centenar de individuos, incluidos los esclavos blancos, que son detectados por este trabajo, suponen muy poco para proyectarse socialmente, aunque sí en lo cultural." [The first conclusion that stands out, already noted as a hypothesis in the preface, is the scarce incidence numerically of Islam, in general, and moriscos in New Spain. Fewer than the hundred individuals, including the white slaves, that are detected in this work, they are very few to project themselves socially, although they could in the cultural realm. (my translation)] Later he writes that his primary conclusion is that there was "nula proyeccion de los moriscos en América. Al menos de los visibles." [Null projection of the moriscos in America; at least of the visible ones. (my translation)]. Deborah Root argues in "Speaking Christian" that in some cases the baptized descendants of former Muslims in the lberian Peninsula learned to speak in particular ways and used specific language to avoid being taken to the Inquisition or to defend themselves in an inquisitorial process. See Deborah Root, "Speaking Christian," 128.
    ${ }^{778}$ Antonio Garrido Aranda, Moriscos e Indios (2013), 178: "Si aquella minoría morisca en América pretendía ocultarse, lo mejor era no dejar huellas y diluirse entre los otros grupos étnicos, aun a costa de su

[^215]:    ${ }^{781}$ María Elena Martínez, Genealogical Fictions, 4 and 42: "increased reification of the categories of Old and New Christians."

    782 María Elena Martínez, Genealogical Fictions, 203-04. The footnote associated with "neophyte" is found, 348n10, "a person stopped being a neophyte 10 years after having been baptized."
    ${ }^{783}$ María Elena Martínez, "Black Blood of New Spain," 485, 514-15. See also Ilona Katzew, "White or Black?," 15: "As the categories of 'new' and 'old' Christian imply, temporality was central to the concept limpieza de sangre, just as time produced vintage wine, generations of devotion to the faith seasoned and aged Christian lineages. Some of the first statutes stipulated that the 'stains' of Jewish and Muslim ancestry were to be traced only to four grandparents (the cuatro costados, or four corners), hence implying that it took three, sometimes four generations, for a converts' descendants to be considered old Christians. But by the 1550s most of the key institutions with purity requirements did not place a limit on the investigations. The condition or status of limpieza de sangre thereafter referred to lineages that claimed to be Christian since 'time immemorial,' that is, for which there could be no memory of a different religious past."

[^216]:    ${ }^{785}$ María Elena Martínez, "Language, Genealogy, and Classification," 39; see also 42, and Genealogical Fictions, 198.
    ${ }^{786}$ María Elena Martínez, "Language, Genealogy, and Classification," 32. See footnote 9.

[^217]:    ${ }^{787}$ María Elena Martínez, Genealogical Fictions, 244: "By the end of the eighteenth century, many probanzas de limpieza produced in New Spain identified four stains: descent from Jews, Muslims and heretics; descent from blacks and (some) native people; descent from slaves ('stains of vulgar infamies'); and descent from people who had engaged in "vile or mechanical occupations." See also 30; see footnote 771.

[^218]:    ${ }^{788}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (French), Archivo Holland, Document I, 320; (Spanish), 237-238.
    789 Granadans were prohibited from relocating to the Kingdoms of Aragón and Valencia.

[^219]:    ${ }^{790}$ References are made both to the French edition (1992) and the Spanish edition (2006). The two editions differ in the narrative-analytical section. References to secondary material are from the more recent Spanish-language edition. The Spanish edition also has 5 additional documents, not considered in this thesis. The title translates into English as "Moriscos and the racism of the state: creation, persecution and deportation (1499-1612)."

[^220]:    ${ }^{791}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (French), Archivo Holland, Document XIII, 340: "La prédication qui sera le fondement de cette conversion, devra être commence dès à présent, de même que le catéchisme et l'instruction." Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), 271: "La predicaçión que ha de ser el fundamento desta conversión, se deve empeçar desde luego y así mismo el catheçhismo y instruçión."

    792 Rodrigo de Zayas (French), Archivo Holland, Document XVIII, 371: "Tout le monde sait dans le royaume de Valence que des personnes ont été déléguées à seule fin de les convertir." Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), 301: "En este reino de Valençia, se a conosçido bien que aver personas diputadas para sola su conversión."
    ${ }^{793}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (French), Archivo Holland, Documents III-X: "L’affaire des Morisques de Valence." Gonzalo Pérez was Philip's secretary from 1543 through his death in 1565 or 66 . He had ties to the Kingdom of Aragón. See 609n.13. Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), 247: "Esto de los moriscos de Valençia"; 255: "Cuanto a lo de los moriscos de Valencia..."
    ${ }^{794}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (French) Archivo Holland, Documents I-II (1542, 1543), XXII-XXIII (1585, c.1568), XLIV-XLVIII (1603, 1609, 1610); Biblioteca Zayas Documents 1-11 (1526-1705).

[^221]:    ${ }^{795}$ See Documents 29.27, 43.9-10, 44.6, 58.11, 58.13, and 65.3. This was also seen in the use of "morisca" in some documents as contrasted to "new Christians." See footnotes 658, 659.
    ${ }^{796}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (French), Archivo Holland, 315, 319, 333, 381, 386, 508.

[^222]:    797 Rodrigo de Zayas (French), Archivo Holland, Document I, 314 : "...le saint office reçu de nombreuses dénonciations contre ces nouveaux convertis, comme quoi ils vivaient comme des Musulmans et pratiquaient leurs cérémonies comme avant. " Document I, 315: "Dès lors, ils se remirent à vivre comme des chrétiens, et de ce fait, ils abandonnèrent de nouveau les rites de Mahomet et parurent vivre en bons chrétiens." Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), 232: "Después de lo qual pasado el dicho término de la graçia vinieron muchas testificaciones al santo offiçio contra los dichos nuevamente convertidos como vivían como moros y hazían sus ceremonias..." 232 "fueron exortados y amonestados que viviesen como buenos christianos y no bolviessen a la seta de Mahoma ni hiziessen los ritos y ceremonias della."
    ${ }^{798}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (French), Archivo Holland, Document I, 315 : "En plus, il apparaissait un autre inconvénient, (à savoir) que les Morisques des royaumes de Castille et de Grenade émigreraient dans le royaume de Valence, s'ils se rendaient compte que la, on ne leur confisquerait pas leurs biens..." Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), 233: "Demás que se podía seguir otro inconveniente que los moriscos del reyno de Castilla y Granada se passarían a vivir al reyno de Valencia siendo que no los confiscavan allá los bienes y despoblarían lo de acá donde estavan más subjetosy poblarían lo de Valencia donde tenían mayores exemçiones y libertades e la tierra estaría en mayor peligro con augmentarse el número de ellos."

    799 Rodrigo de Zayas (French), Archivo Holland, Document I, 315, 317, and 318. Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), 233(2), 235, 236: "nuevamente convertidos de moros."
    ${ }^{800}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (French), Archivo Holland, Document I, 316: "Cette concession accorda une telle liberté aux nouveaux convertis que, ne craignant plus de perdre leurs biens, ils pratiquèrent librement les cérémonies de Mahomet et abandonnèrent la vie chrétienne. Et pas seulement cela ; ils eurent l'extrême audace d'aller en Afrique et d'en revenir chaque fois que leur en prenait l'envie, et ce avec l'aide des seigneurs des régions côtières et de leurs gouverneurs. En plus des susdits, ils favorisaient ainsi tous les Morisques des royaumes de Castille qui, bien que baptisés, passaient en Afrique pour y vivre comme des Maures. Lesdits seigneurs et gouverneurs les aidaient et les convoyaient pour qu'ils puissent passer, en les accompagnants eux-mêmes jusqu'à ce qu'ils puissent embarquer sur les navires Maures, sus lesquels lesdits seigneurs avaient des agents engagés et placés à cette fin." Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), 234: "De la cual conçessión resultó tanta libertad y liçençia en los dichos nuevamente convertidos que no teniendo temor de perder los bienes, usaron más libremente de las ceremonias de Mahoma dexando de bivir como christianos y no solamente hazían esto pero tomaron muy grande atrevimiento para pasarse a África y volverse todas las vezes que querían, para lo qual les daban favor los señores de los lugares de la costa y

[^223]:    blasfemen de la de Jhesu Christo, en gran detrimento de sus ánimas y consçiençias y en malo exemplo y escándalo de los fieles christianos."

    802 Rodrigo de Zayas (French), Archivo Holland, Document II, 322: "The affair regarding the newly converted from the kingdom of Valencia." Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), 241: "aquel negoçio de los nuevamente convertidos del reyno de Valençia."
    ${ }^{803}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (French), Archivo Holland, Document IV, 324 : "Il faudra débattre de la méthode à appliquer pour les endoctriner et pour obtenir qu'ils deviennent chrétiens, ainsi que du châtiment qui leur sera infligé s'ils ne le deviennent pas, et de tout ce qui concerne cette (affaire) de sorte que tout soit résolu et que, cette fois, l'on décide qui se chargera de chaque chose." Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), 245: "Y hace de tratar así de la orden que se ha de tener en dotrinarlos y en procurar que sean christianos, como en el castigo que se les dará quando no lo sean y en todo lo que más a esto toque, de manera que en todo aya resolución y desta vez quede determynado a quién toca cada cosa."
    ${ }^{804}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (French), Archivo Holland, Document III, 323; see also n. 14, 698. Documents III and VI make no mention of the "matter of the moriscos of Valencia"; Document IV makes two mentions of "au sujet/ sur des Morisques de Valence," 324; Document V "J'organiserai la réunion sur cette (question) des Morisques de Valence," 325; Document VII "au sujet des Morisques," 327; Documents VIII and IX have two mentions each of "cette affaire," 328 and 329; Document X refers to "au sujet des Morisques de Valence," 331. Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), 241 "aquel negocio"; Document III, 243, "negocio de Valencia"; see also n.254. Document IV, 245 "sobre lo de los moriscos de Valencia." Document V, 247 "esto de los moriscos de Valencia." Document VII, 251 "sobre lo de los moriscos." Document VII, 253, "en esto de los moriscos" and "sobre este negocio." Document IX, 255 "quanto a lo de los moriscos de Valencia." See also footnotes 504,775.

[^224]:    ${ }^{805}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (French), Archivo Holland, Document X, 332: "S'il s'agissait seulement de punir les Morisques..." Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), 258: "si fuera solamente para tratarse del castigo de los moriscos..."
    ${ }^{806}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (French), Archivo Holland, for examples see Document X: 332; and Document XI: 336 and 337. Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Document X: 257; and Document XI: 261, 263: "la conversión de los Moriscos del Reyno de Valençia."

[^225]:    807 Granada's ended in 1567.
    ${ }^{808}$ Benjamin Ehlers, Between Christians and Moriscos: Juan de Ribera and Religious Reform in Valencia, 1568-1614 (The Johns Hopkins University Press: Baltimore, Maryland, 2006), 83.
    ${ }^{809}$ Benjamin Ehlers, Between Christians and Moriscos, 84.
    ${ }^{810}$ Benjamin Ehlers, Between Christians and Moriscos, 83.
    ${ }^{811}$ Benjamin Ehlers, Between Christians and Moriscos, 83-84.

[^226]:    ${ }^{812}$ See Rodrigo de Zayas (French), Archivo Holland, Document XVIII, 371 : "Si les Morisques demandent un délai ce n'est pas pour être instruits dans la foi catholique mais pour pourvoir vivre librement dans la secte de Mahomet, en attendant que s'offre l'occasion d'un soulèvement. Ils l'espèrent de toutes leurs forces, et la croient proche avec une telle certitude qu'ils acceptent avec joie tout ce qu'on leur demande. Tout cela est évident pour qui connait leur état d'esprit, et de plus, démontre par la requête qu'ils expriment; à savoir que l'Inquisition ne puisse les atteindre. Car il est vrai que l'Inquisition ne les châtie pas et ne les a jamais châtiés parce qu'ils ne sont pas Chrétiens, mais bien parce qu'ils sont musulmans." Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), 300: "El tiempo que los moriscos piden no es [dos palabras añadidas] para ser instruidos en la fee católica sino para ser licençiados de bivyr en la seta de Mahoma, mientras se les ofresçe la ocasión de levantarse que ellos tan de veras esperan. Y por la confiança con qual biben de que a de ser presto, ofrecerán de buena gana quanto se les pidiese. Esto, aliende de ser evidentísimo a los que sabemos sus ánimos, se prueba claramente por lo que juntamente suplican, que es la ynquisiçión no conozcan dellos, siendo como es verdad que el santo offiçio no los castiga ni a castigado jamás porque no son Christianos, sino porque son moros."
    ${ }^{813}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (French), Archivo Holland, Document XVII, 368: "Il faut savoir que les Morisques du Royaume de Valence n'ont jamais été endoctrinés." Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), 297: "Atento que los moriscos nuevos convertidos del Reyno de Valençia nunca han tenido doctrina, ni enseñança suficiente en el conosçimiento de la religión christiana, después que los baptizaron."
    ${ }^{814}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (French), Archivo Holland, Document XVII, 369. "En échange de cette grâce et de ce bienfait public, les Morisques proposent de remettre tout de suite à sa Majesté une grosse somme d'argent, et pour le reste, de faire tout ce qu'il faudra pour assurer leur fidélité et la tranquillité du Royaume." Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), 298: "Offresçen los dichos moriscos que por esta merçed y benefiçio público, servirás a su Magestad con una gruessa summa de dineros que darán luego; y en todo lo demás, que para la seguridad de su fidilidad (sic) y quietud del Reyno convenga."

    815 For example, see Rodrigo de Zayas (French), Archivo Holland, Document XIV, 350. Reference is made to the fear that they align themselves with those of Barbary or the Turks. See also Rodrigo de Zayas

[^227]:    ${ }^{818}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (French), Archivo Holland, Document XLV, 580-581; Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), 541.

    819 Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Document XLV.

[^228]:    820 Jon Cowans, ed. Early Modern Spain, Document \#35, 149-150.
    ${ }^{821}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (French), Archivo Holland, Document XLII, 536: "Ils disent aussi que parmi (les Morisques), il y en a beaucoup qui savent lire et qui écrivent en arabe; ce qui contribue beaucoup à conserver leurs croyances. Ce serait une grande chose que de leur ôter tous les signes extérieurs des musulmans, et de les obliger à comprendre que puisqu'ils sont comme nous Chrétiens par le baptême, ils doivent s'aligner en tout sur les vieux-Chrétiens: dans l'habit et le costume, dans le langage et l'écriture, dans les mets communs, et dans tout ce qui constitue de bonnes habitudes chrétiennes." Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), 496: "También dizen que muchos déstos saben leer y escriven [cinco letras tachadas] arábigo, cosa que mucho les ayuda a conservar en su Morisma. Grande cosa será sin duda quitarles toda la figura exterior de moros, y hazerles, que pues son como nosotros Christianos en el Bautismo, entiendan se han de conformar a todo lo demás con los Christianos viejos, en el vestido y trage, en el lenguaje y scritura, manjares comunes, y todo lo que fuere buenas christianas costumbres."
    ${ }^{822}$ Rodrigo De Zayas (French), Archivo Holland, Document XLII, 542: "Tous les us et coutumes barbares contribuent grandement à leur faire conserver l'attirance et la mémoire de leur loi fausse, alors que s'ils s'habituaient à nos usages et à notre société politique et chrétienne, ils finiraient par se soumettre et oublieraient leurs manières mauresques." Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), 502: "Y porque todo lo que son Bárbaras usansas y costumbres ayuda mucho a conservarlos en la afición y memoria de su falsa ley, y por el contrario, habituándose a las usancas y trato político nuestro y Christiano, vendrán a domesticarse y olvidarse de su morisma."

[^229]:    ${ }^{823}$ These documents are found as appendices in François Martínez, "Le permanence morisque en Espagne après 1609: discours et réalités" (Ph.D. diss., Université Paul-Valéry-Montpellier III, 1997).

[^230]:    824 "Letter from Archbishop Pedro Vaca de Castro to the King. Pedro Vaca de Castro (or Cabeza de Vaca) was Archbishop of Granada 6 December 1589/15 April 1590 to 5 July 1610 and Archbishop of Sevilla 5 July 1610 until 20 December 1623. He was the founder of the Sacramonte monastery. Manuel Barrios Aguilera, "El Sacromonte de Granada y la religiosidad contrarreformista," in J. Ruiz Fernández and V. Sánchez Ramos, ed., La Religiosidad popular y Almería (actas) (Almería: Instituto de Estudios Almerienses, 2004), 17-37.

[^231]:    ${ }^{825}$ Likely from Castilla, given the distinction made between moriscos from Granada and moriscos antiguos.

[^232]:    ${ }^{827}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Document XLVII (4) and Document XLVIII (1).

[^233]:    828 In the entry for MORO in volume 7 of Nuevo Tesoro Lexicográfico del Español (S. XIV-1726), Real Academia Española, Editorial Arco Libros, S. L. editores Lidio Nieto Jiménez and Manuel Alvar Ezquerra, 6845-6846. It seems that the association of moro with blackness goes back to the middle of the seventeenth century, well after our period of study.

[^234]:    ${ }^{829}$ See pages 196, 202, 204, 214, 249.

[^235]:    830 See Section 2.2; footnote 530.
    ${ }^{831}$ Trevor J. Dadson, "Official Rhetoric," 20.
    ${ }^{832}$ There are research projects that aim to show examples of Christians (descendants of former Muslims) remained in the peninsula after 1609-14. Trevor J. Dadson studies the case of Placencia.

[^236]:    ${ }^{833}$ Both quotations come from Trevor J. Dadson, "Official Rhetoric," 2.
    ${ }^{834}$ Quoting from page 149 in Section 2.2 (footnote 500).
    835 Quoting from page 156 in Section 2.2 (footnote 530).
    ${ }^{836}$ As presented by Michel Boeglin, "Between rumor and resistance the Andalucían Morisco 'Uprising' of 1580," in Conversos and Moriscos, ed. Kevin Ingram, 212.

    837 Louis Cardaillac, Moriscos y cristianos.

[^237]:    ${ }^{838}$ The homogenizing term is also sometimes used for the diaspora community after 1609-1614.

[^238]:    839 In Antonio Gallego y Burín, Los moriscos del Reino de Granada, "Moorish things" are: "ceremonias moriscas", 173, 180, 181; "ropa morisca," 174, 175, 177, 179; "a la morisca," 175; the use of "Marlotas," 175; the use of "Almalafas," 178; the practice of face covering (women), 178, 184, 194. These are referenced also in Appendix 2: 10.5, 10.7, 16.1, 16.4, 17.1, 30.3, 30.9, 37.2, 37.3; 11.1-2, 12.1, 14.1-3; 15.1, 35.1-3, 36.1 (x2), 75.3, 76.8; 12.2, 14.4, 15.1-2, 30.7, 75.4; 29.15-16, 30.12 (x2); 29.28; 32.2; 69.1; 12.2, 69.3; 14.4, 14.6-7, 15.1, 29.18-19, 33.2, 38.3, 75.2, 75.4; 14.4, 14.6, 14.8, 25.1-3, 29.18, 29.20, 75.4, 76.13.

    840 See Introduction, footnote 6 and page 216.

[^239]:    ${ }^{841}$ As quoted by Benjamin Ehlers, Between Christians and Moriscos, 128.
    ${ }_{842}$ See footnotes 529, 535.

[^240]:    843 Vincent Barletta, ed., Memorandum, 2-3.

[^241]:    844 Vincent Barletta, ed., Memorandum, 60n.20.
    ${ }^{845}$ Although the new vs. old Christian binary makes sense, it is not universal. In Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Document I, 231-239, there are no uses of old Christian, since Christian (x13) is juxtaposed to newly converted (x16).

[^242]:    847 Barbara Fuchs, Exotic Nation, 2.
    848 The index is not helpful in understanding her use of morisco, since it includes "new Christians" and other references to the community regardless of the term used.
    ${ }^{849}$ Barbara Fuchs, Exotic Nation, 3.
    ${ }^{850}$ See Barbara Fuchs, Exotic Nation, 3-10, 24-26, 82, 114, 138.

[^243]:    ${ }^{851}$ Barbara Fuchs, Exotic Nation, 36-37.
    ${ }^{852}$ Barbara Fuchs, Exotic Nation, 38.

[^244]:    ${ }^{853}$ Barbara Fuchs, Exotic Nation, 59.

[^245]:    ${ }^{854}$ Barbara Fuchs, Exotic Nation, 117.
    ${ }^{855}$ Barbara Fuchs, Exotic Nation, 117; 118: "within Spain Moorishness emphatically does not equal blackness." James Lockhart, Spanish Peru, 170: refers to morisco women in Perú as "light-skinned."
    ${ }^{856}$ Barbara Fuchs, Exotic Nation, 118.
    ${ }^{857}$ See sections related to footnotes 372, 449, 757, 758.
    ${ }^{858}$ Barbara Fuchs, Exotic Nation, 170n.5; James H. Sweet, "Iberian Roots," 150. See also 160: "The concept of blood purity (limpieza de sangre) based on skin color appears to have been as strong a social and cultural indicator in Iberia as it later became in the Americas." Israel Burshatin refers to Muslim men as "brown-skinned males" in the article "Written on the body," 437. Deborah Root, "Speaking Christian," 120: "Although Muslims, mudejars were as indigenously 'Spanish' as the Christian population." 120.

    859 James H. Sweet, "Iberian Roots," 149.
    860 See similar section regarding moriscas in Perú as described by James Lockhart: footnote 757.

[^246]:    ${ }^{861}$ See footnote 832.
    862 Barbara Fuchs, Exotic Nation, 128. See footnotes 6, 508, 520, 578.
    ${ }^{863}$ See Trevor J. Dadson, "Official Rhetoric," 20; see footnote 832.
    864 See pages 25, 256-57, 267, and footnote 738.
    ${ }^{865}$ See Section 3.2 on the Sistema de Castas (esp. pages 239 and 244; footnotes 771, 787).

[^247]:    ${ }^{866}$ María Elena Martínez, "Language, Genealogy, and Classification," 30, 33: writes about legislations regarding caste in the case of México (footnote 771, 772). In the Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish) documents there is a long document from 1557 referring to a "morisco" (Francisco el Partal) claiming the privilege to carry arms because of his "old-Christian" status, which ultimately hinges on a family lineage that was baptized prior to 1501. See Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish) Document 5 and Holland Document XXII (see pages 569-ff., 313-ff., respectively). The final resolution of the case in favor of Francisco el Partal was in August of 1558, it may be asked whether he would have been successful ten years later.
    ${ }^{867}$ See Antonio Garrido Aranda, Moriscos e Indios (2013), Appendices 8 and 9, 215-222.
    868 See Barbara Fuchs, Exotic Nation, 128.
    ${ }^{869}$ Barbara Fuchs, Exotic Nation, 127-28.
    ${ }^{870}$ Trevor J. Dadson, Tolerance and Coexistence, 105, Ch. 8: esp. 171, 178.
    ${ }^{871}$ Barbara Fuchs, Exotic Nation, 138.

[^248]:    872 Trevor J. Dadson, "Official Rhetoric," 23.
    ${ }^{873}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (French), Archivo Holland, Document XLV, 580-581: "au sujet des descendants des Morisques qui s'étaient convertis de leur propre chef avant la répression générale, et qui ne participèrent pas à la Rébellion du Royaume de Grenade."
    ${ }^{874}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish) Archivo Holland, Document XLV, 541: "Y así mismo algunas Beatas y personas que dizen tener hecho voto de castidad."
    ${ }^{875}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (French), Archivo Holland, Document XLV, 580-581: "En particulier, au sujet de ceux qui sont considérés comme des vieux-Chrétiens de par leur langue, leurs costumes et leurs pratiques religieuses; ceux qui se confessant, communient, commémorent les anniversaires et autres souvenirs pieux; ceux que se sont mêlés aux vieux-Chrétiens et se sont détournés de ceux du Royaume de Grenade, et ces autres qui affirment qu'ils ont servi dans (la champagne contre) la Rébellion dudit Royaume." Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), 541: "En particular, de los que se an tratado como Christianos viejos en la lengua, en el ábito y en los actos de Religión; confessando, y comulgando, dexando aniversarios y otras memorias pías, y

[^249]:    que se an mezclado con Christianos viejos y apartándose de los del Reyno de Granada, y otros, los quales alegan que sirvieron en la Rebelión del dicho Reyno." See footnote 818.
    ${ }^{876}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish) Archivo Holland, Document XLV, 541: "E resuelto que no se expelen los Moriscos de este género que los Obispos aprobaren ser buenos y fieles Christianos, y aver vivido como tales sin aver guardado en la comida, y bebida, ni en ninguna otra cosa ningún rito de la secta de Mahoma."

[^250]:    ${ }^{877}$ See footnote 790 comparing the French and Spanish editions of this book.

[^251]:    ${ }^{878}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), 31 "moriscos bautizados." This phrase is as problematic as Barbara Fuchs' "Christian Moors": Exotic Nation, 3 (see footnote 849).

    879 Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), 46: "...deberíamos preguntarnos con toda seriedad...si el racismo institucional no es pura y sencillamente un viejo producto de nuestra cultura Cristiana. Las víctimas judías y musulmanes de la Inquisición, las leyes laicas basadas en los estatutos de limpieza (de origen religioso) y las deportaciones masivas de españoles de religión judía y musulmana militan a favor de esa interpretación."
    ${ }^{880}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), 102, notes that baptism was what made this community fall under the jurisdiction of the Inquisition.

    881 See pages 273, footnote 833.

[^252]:    ${ }^{882}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), 70: "En ese contexto, la Inquisición española adoptó oficialmente un concepto fundamentas para el porvenir de los moriscos y del racismo de Estado: el de 'nación'. Ese concepto sobrepasa el ámbito de lo religioso para adentrarse cada vez más en el de linaje, no en el sentido familiar sino comunitario de la palabra. En ese concepto colectivo caben moros, herejes de moros, apostatas y también cristianos nuevos enteramente y parcialmente asimilados a las normas ortodoxas del catolicismo español. Entre 1542 y 1609 nace algo nuevo, partiendo del principio según el cual el morisco, por el mero hecho de ser morisco, no puede ser cristiano de buena fe."
    ${ }^{883}$ Purity of blood statutes were also a mechanism of control.
    ${ }^{884}$ Barbara Fuchs, Exotic Nation, 138.
    ${ }^{885}$ This is interesting since elsewhere de Rodrigo de Zayas is careful to note what falls within the purview of the Inquisition. See footnote 880.

[^253]:    ${ }^{886}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), 76-77: "...trato bastante análogo al de la minoría morisca en España..."; "...la eliminación física de la minoría morisca..."; and, "Ante la resistencia pasiva-y a veces activa-de la minoría morisca..."

    887 Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), 78. "En la represión ejercida contra la comunidad morisca..."; "...los procesos inquisitoriales no alcanzaban al grueso de la población morisca..."
    ${ }^{888}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), 85. "¿Quiénes fueron los moriscos? De entrada, sabemos los que no fueron: cristianos viejos. Se les llamaba 'cristianos nuevos." The French and Spanish editions of de Zayas' work differ in their narrative sections (non-primary documents). The Spanish version is shorter and updated. Sections of Ch. 2 in Spanish may be found in Rodrigo de Zayas (French) Ch. 8:194: "La 'question morisque'." The line included above appears this way in the French edition: "...qui sont les Morisques? Nous avons déjà une idée de ce qu'ils sont; les vieux-chrétiens espagnols savent ou croient savoir ce qu'ils ne sont pas, c'est-à-dire des chrétiens.".
    ${ }^{889}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), 91: "Mientras tanto, los mudéjares granadinos se estaban convirtiendo en moriscos. Ese fenómeno era algo enteramente nuevo y debido a los bautizos forzosos impuestos por Cisneros."

[^254]:    ${ }^{890}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), 94: "El creador directo, casi se podría decir el inventor de los moriscos-como a partir de entonces se llamaría a los 'cristianos nuevos'93_queda pues perfectamente identificado: fray Francisco Jiménez de Cisneros." FN93 reads, "En ese momento se estrena un nuevo sentido de la palabra 'morisco' pero no la palabra en sí aparece, por ejemplo en la obra de Joanot Martorell, Tirant lo Blanch (siglo XV), como sinónima de 'moro."' Earlier on p. 31 Rodrigo de Zayas is clear that "moro" means "Muslim." " $2^{\circ}$ La sanción papal otorgada a los estatutos generales de limpieza de sangre, fechada en mayo de 1548. Desde entonces, hubo necesidad legal de demostrar la ausencia de antepasados judíos o moros (es decir musulmanes), para acceder a ciertos privilegios.... $3^{\circ}$ La real decisión del 4 de agosto de 1609 de deportar masivamente a los moriscos, que éstos fueran o no cristianos bautizados y practicantes. Consta que en la mayoría de los casos, los moriscos eran considerados culpables de tener sangre contaminada por sus antepasados moros; 'moro’ significando, lo sabemos, ‘musulmán' en general." Here Rodrigo de Zayas is very clear that morisco and moro did not have the same definitions.
    ${ }^{891}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), 100: "Ello no quiere decir que las pragmáticas de Juana la Loca y de Carlos I carecieran de cierta lógica; efectivamente, si los moriscos eran cristianos, y lo eran en virtud del bautizo, debían comportarse como tales y sin más demoras."
    ${ }^{892}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), 100: "En un principio también, el punto de vista de los moriscos era igual de lógico: generalmente, se sentían herederos de una gran y potente civilización independiente, la suya propia: AI Ándalus..."

[^255]:    ${ }^{893}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), 104: "El 25 de noviembre, un decreto general de expulsión de los moriscos fue firmado por el rey. Todos los de Valencia debían abandonar el reino antes del 31 de diciembre, y los de Aragón y de Cataluña antes del 31 de enero de 1526. Otro edicto fue promulgado, dándoles a los moriscos hasta el 8 de diciembre para hacerse bautizar y demostrar ser buenos cristianos. La contradicción entre esos dos edictos es evidente y demuestra que la finalidad era presionar a los moriscos para que se convirtieran de una vez por todas o paguen más. El efecto fue inmediato: decenas de miles de moriscos solicitaron el bautizo..."
    ${ }^{894}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), 104: "Las medidas tomadas por Carlos I tuvieron serias consecuencias. En primer lugar, el estatuto de 'mudéjar' quedó definitivamente abolido."
    ${ }^{895}$ The total at the end is for the last part of the table (below the gray).

[^256]:    896 Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Document XLVII (4) and Document XLVIII (1).
    897 Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Document XL (2).
    898 Not "moriscos bautizados."
    899 Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Document XLIV.

[^257]:    ${ }^{900}$ See footnote 657 (page 202).

[^258]:    901 See Documents 32.5, 32.9, 44.16, 64.18, 76.1.
    902 For "nación" see Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Documents XXXV (1), XXXIX (13), XL (7), XLII (3); for "gente" see Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Documents XIII (2), XXXIII (1), XXXVI (1), XXXVIII (1), XXXIX (5), XL (15), XLI (4), XLII (3), XLIII (4).
    ${ }^{903}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Documents XIII (1), XIX (1), XXXIX (1), XL (6), XLII (1), XLIII (5); total of 15 instances.
    ${ }^{904}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Document XIII (1), 279: "El Señor provea todo de la manera que la salvación desta desdichada gente y seguridad de Spaña lo ha menester."

    905 See Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Documents XIX (1), XL (1), XLIII.
    ${ }^{906}$ Such as the first conversion of Spain by St. James and the first successful conversions of former Muslims. See Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Document XLIII: 514, 519, 528.

[^259]:    907 Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Documents XIX (1), XX (1), XXXIII (1), XXXIX (4). Document XXXIX, 388, a similar instance: "other similar freedoms that the moriscos in Spain have had..." ("otras semejantes libertades que los moriscos en España an tenido...")

    908 See footnote 9.
    909 Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Document I (13), II (1), XL (2), XLI (1); Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Biblioteca Zayas, Document 5 (3).

    910 Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Documents XVI (1), XVII (1), XXIV (2), XXVII (2), XXVIII (1), XXIX (2), XXX (3), XXXI (6), XXXII (5), XXXIII (10), XXXVI (9), XXXVII (6), XXXVIII (3), XL (19).

[^260]:    ${ }^{911}$ See footnotes 779, 785.
    912 Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Documents I (10), XIII (5), XIV (1), XV (3), XVIII (3), XXXIII (2), XXXIX (4), XL (24), XLII (8).
    ${ }^{913}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Biblioteca Zayas, Documents 1 (3), 2 (3), 3 (9), 4 (4), 5 (1), 8 (12), 9 (4), 10 (1), 14 (1), 15 (1).

    914 Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Document XL, 435: see examples such as "after the Moors were baptized."
    ${ }^{915}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Document I, has six mentions of the newly converted living like moros after baptism.

    916 Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Documents XL (2), 435 and 436.

[^261]:    ${ }^{917}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Biblioteca Zayas, Document 8, 591-594.
    ${ }^{918}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Biblioteca Zayas, Document 8, 592. Like ladinos elsewhere. This is different from a morisco who knows the Arabic language in Castilian characters (aljamiado) as seen in Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Document XIII, 271 and 271 n. 269.

    919 Lucas A. Marchante-Aragón, "Rejection of Hybridity," 109.

[^262]:    ${ }^{920}$ Lucas A. Marchante-Aragón, "Rejection of Hybridity", 109: "singing in various poetic forms, they described how His Majesty, like another Pelayo, with this expulsion restored Spain a second time."
    ${ }^{921}$ See footnote 8.
    922 Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Documents XXXIII, XXXXVII, and XLII.
    923 Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Document XXXIII, 365.
    924 Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Document XXXVII, 378 (3).
    ${ }^{925}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Document XLII, 496. "También dizen que muchos déstos saben leer y escriven [cinco letras tachadas] arávigo, cosa que mucho les ayuda a conservar en su Morisma. Grande cosa será sin duda quitarles toda la figura exterior de moros, y hazerles, que pues son como nosotros Christianos en el Bautismo, entiendan se han de conformar en todo lo demás con los Christianos viejos, en el vestido y trage, en el lenguaje y scritura, manjares comunes, y todo lo que fuere buenas y christianas costumbres." (My translation and italics).

[^263]:    ${ }^{926}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Document XLII, 502: "Y porque todo lo que son Bárbaras usanças y costumbres ayuda mucho a conservarlos en la afición y memoria de su falsa ley, y por el contrario, habituándose a las usanças y trato político nuestro y Christiano, vendrán a domesticarse y olvidarse de su morisma. Convendrá que los Senyores obispos exorten a los principales déstos a que, pues son Bautizados y hijos de la Santa Yglesia, se conformen con todo los que es [palabra repetida] bueno y lícito con los Christianos viejos: trage, lenguaje, comeres y viandas, y beber" (My translation and italics). The third example, Document XLII, 497: "Pues porque no se començara desde luego y en vida de los vivos, se podría ver derecha esta morisma casi sin sentirse."

[^264]:    927 Antonio Garrido Aranda. Moriscos e Indios: Precedentes Hispánicos de la Evangelización en México, 2nd ed. (Ciudad de México: Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, 2013.) See footnotes 9 and 626.

    928 DELETE
    929 Antonio Garrido Aranda, Moriscos e Indios (2013), 45: "Desde 1927 y merced a la aguda pluma de Leturia se conectó la estructura político-administrativa-eclesiástica de los nuevos territorios americanos con el precedente inmediato de la Iglesia en Granada." ["From 1927 and as a result of the keen pen of Leturia the ecclesial-administrative structure of the new American territories was connected to its immediate precedent of the Church in Granada."] To this Antonio Garrido Aranda adds the parallels in the evangelization project (see 51-53).
    ${ }^{930}$ Louis Cardaillac's book title Moriscos y Cristianos: un enfrentamiento polémico, definitely makes "moriscos" other from "Christian" even though it is also mixing religious and ethnic categories.

[^265]:    ${ }^{931}$ See footnotes 771, 772, 773, 787.
    932 Antonio Garrido Aranda, Moriscos e Indios (2013), 87: title of chapter "La educación de moriscos e indios como factor de integración cultural"; "dirigidos ambos a la asimilación de los respectivos elementos aborígenes: moriscos e indios"; "Además, la educación como conquista, ya hablemos de moriscos o de indios...; "Las diferencias entre las comunidades morisca e india eran abismales, tanto por sus culturas como por sus relaciones con los vencedores castellanos." (101); "dos catecismos dirigidos, respectivamente, a moriscos e indios" (148); "en los dos territorios estudiados, Granada e Indias" "Entre los recursos utilizados por los evangelizadores para dar a conocer los contenidos de la nueva fe que se pretendía inculcar a moriscos e indios están los catecismos" (164); "Entre moriscos e indios, la nueva religión era rechazada por la mayoría." (166); "Estoy con y por los moriscos y los indios..." (184).
    ${ }^{933}$ Antonio Garrido Aranda, Moriscos e Indios (2013): Morisco - dozens of uses; mudéjar - 51, 68, 71, $124,151,152,156,157,158,162,166$; neoconversos de moros, $53,81,90,107,108,111,142,170$, variant nuevos conversos, 107; minoría morisca 93, 106, 111, 123, 125, 131, 143, 178.

    934 Antonio Garrido Aranda, Moriscos e Indios (2013), 124-126: six citations where he quotes the phrase "nuevamente convertidos." See footnote below 937.

[^266]:    ${ }^{935}$ Antonio Garrido Aranda, Moriscos e Indios (2013), 124: "legislación restrictiva del paso y estancia de moros, judíos, herejes y nuevamente convertidos a la fe." In a quote from a primary document included in his text, he italicizes the phrase "no consentiréis ni daréis lugar que allá vayan moros, ni judios, ni herejes, ni reconciliados, ni personas nuevamente convertidas a nuestra fe, salvo si fuesen esclavos negros o otros esclavos negros que hallan nacido en poder de cristianos nuestros subditos y naturales." [do not consent to or allow for travel to moros, nor Jews, nor heretics, nor reconciled, nor persons newly converted to our Faith, except for black slaves or other black slaves that were born under the rule of Christians subject and natural to us.] (My translation.) In looking closely at this phrase it does not refer to white slaves because presumably these could pass undetected and fit any of the categories highlighted above.
    ${ }^{936}$ Antonio Garrido Aranda, Moriscos e Indios (2013), 124: [In 1522 the Emperor referred, in his zeal to control the movements of travelers, to the 'newly converted of the moors.' It was the first time that the moriscos were named explicitly, with the effect of a displacement of the state's anxieties over the converso Jews. (My translation and emphasis.)
    ${ }^{937}$ Antonio Garrido Aranda, Moriscos e Indios (2013), 125: "no pudiesen pasar en estas partes hombres nuevamente convertidos..."; quotes "mandamos que ningún nuevamente convertido a nuestra santa fe de moro o de judío..." (Antonio Garrido Aranda's emphasis); quotes "sepades que nos somos informados que a estas partes han pasado y cada día pasan algunos esclavos y esclavas berberiscas, e otras personas libres nuevamente convertidos de moros..." (Antonio Garrido Aranda's emphasis). Earlier (p. 80) he includes a quotation about Martín Pérez de Ayala, Archbishop of Guadix and a manual on Christian doctrine "compuesta por Martín de Ayala para la instrucción de los nuevamente convertidos de este reino" ["Composed by Martín de Ayala for the instruction of the newly converted of this kingdom." (My translation)]

[^267]:    ${ }^{938}$ Antonio Garrido Aranda, Moriscos e Indios (2013), 152: "Por tanto, Cisneros actuó como un líder del aparato político-eclesiástico anclado en la tradición, opuesto a las concepciones laicas del Estado Moderno; con ello, el triunfo de los cristianos viejos sobre los nuevamente convertidos (criptojudíos y moriscos)."
    ${ }^{939}$ See the paragraph related to footnote 890.
    ${ }^{940}$ Antonio Garrido Aranda, Moriscos e Indios (2013): "Minoría morisca," 93, 106, 111, 123, 125, 131, 143, 178; "moriscos integrados," 95; and "moriscos encubiertos," 138.

[^268]:    ${ }^{941}$ Antonio Garrido Aranda, Moriscos e Indios (2013), 124: (1526) "en el reino de Granada se realizaba una lenta pero efectiva asimilación que culmino en 1526 con la visita al territorio, al tiempo que el conflicto social de las Germanías valencianas había convertido por la vía radical a los mudéjares en moriscos."

    942 Antonio Garrido Aranda, Moriscos e Indios (2013), 51: "[P]ara la conversión de los recién vencidos mudéjares." [For the conversion of the recently conquered mudéjares. (My translation.)] For an interesting use of mudéjar in one of the texts included in Moriscos e Indios see current p. 195 and footnote 633 regarding Document 8 of the Granadan Documents.
    ${ }^{943}$ Antonio Garrido Aranda, Moriscos e Indios (2013), 68: "La sociedad mudéjar era todo menos uniforme. Había moriscos descendientes de Africanos, otros procedentes del norte de África, venidos de Aragón, etcétera." (My translation.)

    944 Document 8(5); Document 30(1). See footnote above 942.

[^269]:    ${ }^{945}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Document XL, 446-47: "... porque los cathólicos que viven entre estos Apóstatas, aunque conservan la fe, se entibian demasiadamente tratando siempre con los Moriscos, y viendo continuamente sus errores consentidos y no castigados. ...ordenaciones de la Iglesia cerca deste peligro que es tanta comunicación como ésta de cathólicos con herejes, como éstos lo [palabra añadida] son y apóstatas."

[^270]:    946 Introduced in Section 1.1 (starting p. 34).
    ${ }^{947}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Document XL, 438: "Que es sentencia de todos los theólogos que el que por fuerça, o miedo, o amenazas, se consiente baptizar, queda obligado a guardar la fe christiana, y justamente es contado por la iglesia entre sus fieles porque de jure divino basta tal consentimiento, y siendo así, que es imposible que un hombre comiençe nueva vida y renuncie la pasada sin consentimiento de su voluntad." See also, 464 "Y no es bastante escusa dezir que los bautizaron por fuerça en tiempo de las comunidades.... Pero muchos de los que le rescibieron por fuerça consintieron en

[^271]:    quál quiere más, la muerte o ser baptizado, y él elije el baptismo por huyr de a muerte." ("The other force is conditional when there is some room for the will of the person suffering the force; not that he be baptized whether he wants or not, but that he chooses what he wants more, death or to be baptized, and chooses baptism to run away from death.") See also 433 "es de la fuerça y el temor que intervino en el baptismo destos christianos nuevos." ("It is in the [manner of] force and fear that intervened in the baptism of these new Christians.")
    ${ }^{952}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Document XL, 440: FN 411 in Rodrigo de Zayas where he writes "La amenaza de muerte, según el derecho canónico, no es considerada coacción 'absoluta' pues existía plena libertad para escoger la muerte en vez del bautismo." ("The threat of death, according to canonical law, is not considered absolute duress/coercion since there was full freedom to choose death instead of baptism.")
    ${ }^{953}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Document XL, 441: "Y como el hazer un voto es libre, y el cumplirlo despúes obligatorio, así es en lo de la fe antes que se professe, y después." See also, 435 "el Papa y el Emperador mandarón que todos los Moros Baptizados se confirmassen y viviessen como christianos." (the Pope and the Emperor ordered that all of the baptized Moors be confirmed and live as Christians.") This is because there was a period from 1522 (the Comunero forced baptisms) to the 1526 general order, where some of those who were baptized in 1522 had not changed their manner of living. "estos Moros estavan obligados a guardar la fe que avían rescibido en el Baptismo aunque forçados, quanto al juicio de la iglesia, y así se ordenó." ("These Moors were obliged to keep the faith that they had received in the baptism, although forced, according to the judgment of the church, and so it was ordered.") Elsewhere in this thesis (Granadan Documents) the argument was that they must live like Christians, because they were, because of their baptism; see also Document XLII, 486.

[^272]:    955 The use of the term "monological" in this case comes from Lucas Marchante-Aragón and Israel Burshatin. A nuanced example may be found in Rodrigo de Zayas Archivo Holland, Document XIII, 272 : there is mention of some having converted. "porque si no se lleva una comarca a una, aunque se convierta algún lugar o buena parte del, luego los Moriscos comarcanos tractarán de pervertir a los convertido con industrias y amenaças, como se tiene por experimentado." ("because if the preaching is not taken from one place to another, even if part of a place or a good portion of it, afterward the neighbor moriscos will try to pervert the converted one with cunning and threats, as has been experienced." Here it seems that the moriscos are the non-converted part of the community.

[^273]:    956 Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Document XXXIX, 391: "Combiene...[que] Vuestra Magestad los reprima con otras leyes penales que refrenen los atrevimientos grandes que tienen, y cumplan con lo que el ser christianos les obliga, pues están baptizados, y por ello obligados a lo que los demás fieles de nuestra madre iglesia siguen y profesan."
    ${ }^{957}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), argues that "infieles" are not subject to the Inquisition and that Jaime Bleda was in error in including "infidelidad" alongside "herejía y apostasía," FN 394, 431. The problem may also lie with the fact that earlier Jaime Bleda seems to define "infidelidad" as "herejía" or "apostasía." The FN reads "Bleda comete un error técnico: la Inquisición no era competente en materia de infidelidad, pero sí de herejía y apostasía. Según el derecho canónico, la infidelidad no es compatible con la herejía." "Bleda makes a technical error: the Inquisition was not competent in the matter of infidelity, but yes in those of heresy and apostasy. According to canonical law, infidelity is not compatible with heresy.")

    958 See footnotes 599, 600.

[^274]:    ${ }^{959}$ Apostate or heretic.
    ${ }^{960}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Document XL, 418: "Que en principio deste tratado le importa probar que los nuebos convertidos, viviendo como suelen, se deve tener por infieles, y que han buelto a su primera secta."
    ${ }^{961}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Document XLII, 477: In speaking of impediments to full conversion: "El primero es que el daño de la infidelidad que en esta gente oy día se vee, es derivado de padres en hijos; quiero dezir mal muy viejo. Que como los que al principio se convirtieron eran ya personas de edad, y en su instructión no se puso el calor que convenía, deixaron (sic) hijos semejantes así, y éstos criaron de la misma manera a sus hijos y aquéllos a los suyos asta los que viven al día de oy. De manera que desde el Principio, nunca se han destruydo en estas almas los mahometanos errores." ("The first is that the damage of infidelity that can be seen in this gente today, it is derived from parents in children; I mean that it is a very old ailment. Since those who converted at the beginning were older persons, and the necessary zeal was not put in their instruction, they left their children in a similar state, and these raised their children in a similar manner, y those theirs until those that live today. Therefore, since the beginning, the Mahometan errors have never been destroyed in their souls.")
    ${ }^{962}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Document XL, 439: "Que éstas razones que se le han ofrezcido (sic) para probar que los christianos nuebos del Reyno de Valencia, y quiçá del Reyno de Aragón, son infieles manifiestos, y su heregía es Apostasía."

[^275]:    ${ }^{963}$ Since the late 1970s and early 1980s, following the work of Louis Cardaillac much of the interpretation about the interior belief of this community has been looked at through the lens of "dissimulation" (taqiyya). Although a valuable insight, it falls in line with the narrative that was being constructed and it is difficult to separate from the actual lived lives of members of this community.

    964 Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Document XIII (1581), 270: The argument was that their illness was in the heart ("pues estando el mal en el coraçón") and that policing that community based on external action was not the proper cure for the ailment; see also 271.
    ${ }^{965}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Document XL (1604-09), 464: "me parece que supuesta la gran dureza de coraçón que en ellos se halla, pues casi todos (y plega a Dios que no sean todos) son hereges y aún Apóstatas que es peor." ("it seems to me that given the great hardness of heart which is found in them, since almost all (and may it please God that it is not all) are heretics and even apostates which is worse.")

[^276]:    966 Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Document XLII: "professando con solo palabras y appariençias ser Christianos, siendo moros en el alma." (professing only with words and appearances, being Moors/Muslims in the soul") Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland Document XLIII: "fingirse christianos" ("pretend to be Christians") see pages 512, 515 and 516.

    967 Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Document XLIII (1600), 509-ff.: "procurar la Conversión desta gente, porque son enemigos domésticos."
    ${ }^{968}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (French), Archivo Holland, Document 43, 548: Because they were perceived as having an alliance with the Turks, they constituted a permanent danger to the Crown (a fifth column).
    ${ }^{969}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (French), Archivo Holland, Document 43, 549: "La solution de ce problème dépendra de leur véritable conversion..." Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, 511: "El Remedio deste inconveniente será procurar le verdadera conversión dellos, no por medios que les obliguen a dissimular su Secta como aora hazen, y fingirse Christianos reconcentrándose el mal dentro del coraçón con doblado odio a los que los tienen oprimidos en cuerpo y en alma..."

    970 Rodrigo de Zayas (French), Archivo Holland, Document 43, 554: "Que je sache, elle n's pas obtenu depuis quarante ans qu'un seul Catholique abandonne vraiment sa religion, bien que les moyens (employés) et les menaces aient fait que beaucoup se soient plies extérieurement a sa volonté. Il n'est donc pas étonnant que peu de Morisques se soient vraiment convertis ici, même s'ils sont nombreux à feindre d'être chrétiens. Ce n'est pas cela qui leur est demande, mais bien de se convertir du fond du cœur." Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, 515: "Y como ella en quarenta años me a alcançado que un solo Cathólico que yo sepa dexasse de veras su religión, aunque el miedo y las amenaças an hecho a muchos acomodarse en lo exterior a su voluntad, así, no es mucho que tan pocos moriscos se hayan convertido de veras aquí, aunque muchos se fingen Christianos; lo qual no es remedio que se pretende, sino que se conviertan de coraçón."

[^277]:    ${ }^{971}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Document XL: Moros: 417, 425, 434, 435 (2), 436 (2), 438, 439, 441, 442, 451, 452, 460 (4), 462-63 (6), 465; Gente: 413, 416, 424, 427, 428, 433 (2), 442,443, 444, 445, 446, 450, 460, 461; Nación: 413, 422, 432, 433 (2), 448, 458; Morisco: 425 (2), 427, 433, 443, 446, 452, 456, 464, 465; Nuevamente convertidos: 418, 457; Moros bautizados: 435, 436; Moriscos convertidos: 428. Neophytes: 418; Heretics: 414, 416, 417 (3), 418 (2), 419, 422, 425, 427 (2), 428 (5), 429 (3), 430, 431, 433, 440, 441, 447, 48, 449 (3), 454 (3), 464, 465; Apostates :412, 417, 418 (2), 419 (2), 422, 429, 431, 433, 440 (2), 447, 441, 446, 454, 464, 465; Infidels: 412, 418, 419, 431, 433, 447, 448, 453.

[^278]:    972 Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, Document XL: Morisco: morisco names 425 (2); morisco houses 427; morisco towns/villages 433; Moriscos from the Kingdom of Valencia 443; dealing always with the moriscos 446; morisco vassals 452; moriscos 456; of the 20 parts of the Moriscos 464; no Morisco should speak arabic 465.
    ${ }^{973}$ See María Elena Martínez, Genealogical Fictions, 38: As with the converts of Judaism before them, "As recent studies have convincingly argued, during the fifteenth and early sixteenth centuries, some conversos were crypto-Jews and others were fully committed to Christianity, but most, including those who left the Iberian Peninsula, fell in between these two categories and partook in a variety of Christian and Jewish practices."
    ${ }^{974}$ María Elena Martínez, Genealogical Fictions, 50-51.
    975 See Section 1.1. (see pages $35,48,104$ and footnotes $65,128,127$ ).

[^279]:    ${ }^{976}$ See Rodrigo de Zayas (Spanish), Archivo Holland, 384, 465, and 472-73.
    977 This is clearer in the case of Amerindians.

[^280]:    ${ }^{978}$ Rodrigo de Zayas (French), Archivo Holland, Documents 24-38, 390-443.
    979 See for example, Rodrigo de Zayas (French), Archivo Holland, Document 26, 393: "a plus importante pour que l'instruction de Morisques soit un succès."

[^281]:    ${ }^{981}$ Seems to be a transcription error in adding "viejos" in this context.

[^282]:    ${ }^{982}$ In Moriscos e Indios there is a useful glossary (151-153): zambras, from Arabic zamr, music related to the festivities of weddings, etc.

[^283]:    ${ }^{983}$ In Moriscos e Indios there is a useful glossary (151-153): Almalafa, from the Arabic al-malhafa is a large cape worn by the women in Granada.

[^284]:    984 There is a discrepancy between the transcriptions of these two documents. Both documents include the same material but in a different order. Starting in the middle of line 2 on page 210 of Sínodo and continuing through line 24 of page 211 of Sínodo is found starting at the bottom of page 145.
    ${ }^{985}$ In Moriscos e Indios there is a useful glossary (151-153): Guadó comes from the Arabic wadu, in this case the purification immediately after birth; alcandora, a shirt; coça, from the Arabic qussa, shaving the head of the newborn, ritually equivalent to circumcision.

[^285]:    986 payments
    987 In Moriscos e Indios there is a useful glossary (151-153): gazí, from the Arabic gazi, meaning freed or captive Muslim slaves (associated with North Africa and Turkey)

[^286]:    988 The text editor attributes this date to the text based on mention of Canon Esteban Núñez. See Antonio Gallego y Burín, Moriscos del Reino de Granada, 226.

[^287]:    ${ }^{989}$ Folio adjacent to the previous document.
    ${ }^{990}$ Folio adjacent to the previous documents.

