Henry George and the Catholic View of Morality and the Common Good, I:
George's Overall Critique of Pope Leo XIII's Classic Encyclical, 'Rerum Novarum'

By J. Brian Benestad

ABSTRACT. On the issuance of the first of the modern social encyclicals, Rerum Novarum, Henry George, the American economist and social philosopher, criticized its author, Pope Leo XIII, for defending a limited right to own land and for limiting the right of private ownership of labor products. George did so by reasoning from Locke's ground that each human has a property right in one's person. George distinguished between possession (and use) and ownership of land on the ground of the common good. That required equality of mutual opportunity, which George would achieve by a Single Tax on all land values. Land reform, he held, would lead to moral reform, and thus to a society based on justice. Pope Leo goes beyond the Schoolmen in stressing a natural right to property, including land, which he asserted must be regarded as sacred. This right, he said, was not absolute, but subject to be used, according to God's Will, for the benefit of others. George looked to a change in the economic structure by reform of land tenure and use to establish a just social order; Leo to religion and the church, the government, moral individuals and voluntary associations to do so.

I

George's Philosophical Differences with Leo XIII

In the spring of 1891, Pope Leo XIII issued the first of the modern social encyclicals, Rerum Novarum. Toward the end of the summer, Henry George wrote a long critique of that encyclical in the form of an open letter to the pope. George takes Leo XIII to task for defending a limited right to own land, and for limiting the right of private ownership of things produced by labor. While recognizing the right of all to possess (and use) land, George holds that there is no right to own land. He also argues that there is an unlimited right to ownership of things produced by labor. The basis of this

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unlimited right lies in “the right of the individual to himself.” George echoes the teaching of John Locke that man has a property in his person and, therefore, has a right to the fruits of his personal labor. George defends the exclusive possession of land only in order to secure “the exclusive ownership of the products of labor.”

George’s distinction between possession and ownership of land is meant to serve the common good:

To combine the advantages of private possession with the justice of common ownership it is only necessary therefore to take for common uses what value attaches to land irrespective of any labor on it.7

George proposes that government levy a tax on all land equal to its worth, annualized, “irrespective of the use made of it or the improvements on it.” As this tax would provide sufficient revenue for the operation of government, George recommends the repeal of all taxes levied on the products and processes of industry. Taxes on the fruits of labor, according to George, violate the moral law, including the right to property.

George’s defense of a Single Tax on land is meant to secure equal opportunity to all. Equality of mutual opportunity is the most important of all natural rights. George goes so far as to say that his proposals are in conformity with the will of God. More precisely, God intended public revenues to be raised solely by taxing land.

That God has intended the State to obtain the revenues it needs by the taxation of land values is shown by the same order and degree of evidence that shows that God has intended the milk of the mothers for the nourishment of the babe.8

George further believes that his views on economics correspond to Christ’s teaching in the Sermon on the Mount.

We see that Christ was not a mere dreamer when he told men that if the world would seek the kingdom of God and its right-doings they might no more worry about material things than do the lilies of the field about their raiment; but that he was only declaring what political economy in the light of modern discovery shows to be a sober truth.9

That ‘sober truth’ is, of course, to abolish all taxes on the fruits of labor and tax land values irrespective of improvement. These two steps are decisive in the quest for justice. George thus puts forth his two-pronged proposal not only as a sound economic policy but as good ethics as well.

George contends that Leo XIII really did not understand the nature of private property. The Pontiff supposedly confused property in things produced by labor with property in land created by God.

George’s argument against Leo’s defense of property in land can be briefly summarized. Purchase can only give a right to own things which would become rightful property. To justify private property in land is no different
from justifying private property in slaves, or the seizure of a spring in the
desert to which one would allow access only upon payment. To justify
ownership of the earth is to deter some from satisfying their daily needs.
George characterizes as naïve Leo’s statement that “the earth though divided
among private owners ceases not thereby to minister to the needs of all.”
Why? Some people hoard up land and cause scarcity and thus poverty and
destitution. A study of history reveals that land ownership led to lawsuits,
maldistribution of goods, slavery and war.
...to the parceling out of land in great tracts is due the backwardness and turbulence of
Spanish Americans; that to the large plantations of the Southern States of the Union was
due the persistence of slavery there... .
Furthermore, a study of Scripture, contrary to Leo’s assertion, shows that there
is not the slightest justification “for the attaching to land of the same right of
property that justly attaches to the things produced by labor.”
Abolishing taxes on the processes and products of labor in favor of taxes
on land values would promote equality of opportunity, thrift, industry,
commerce, and “the largest production and the fairest distribution of wealth.”
by managing individual freedom; it would also reduce the size of government,
dispensc with oaths and do away with temptation to bribery, tax evasion and
corruption. George further believes that universal affluence would be possible,
if his ideas were accepted.

But in the state of society we strive for where the monopoly and waste of God’s bounty
would be done away with and the fruits of labor would go to the laborer, it would be
within the ability of all to make more than a comfortable living with reasonable labor.

Those unable to work because of disability would receive from the wealth of the State, which would always be sufficient for every need provided the land
was taxed.

In brief, George believes that adoption of his land policy would eliminate
scarcity, which is the real cause of greed. Land reform, leading to prosperity,
would produce moral reform. The following passages from George’s major work, Progress and Poverty, confirm without a doubt the author’s hopes and
expectations.

It seems to me that in a condition of society in which no one need fear poverty, no one
would desire great wealth at least no one would take the trouble to strive and to strain for
it as men do now...

The rise of wages, the opening of opportunities for all to make an easy and comfortable
living would at once lessen and would soon eliminate from society the thieves, swindlers
and other classes of criminals who spring from the unequal distribution of wealth...

With this abolition of want and the fear of want, the admiration of riches would decay,
and men would seek the respect and approbation of their fellows in other modes than by
acquisition and display of wealth...
That greed would disappear if scarcity were overcome is a most optimistic view of human nature, not shared by either the classical or Christian tradition, and, of course, not supported by the results of contemporary social science research.

II

George's Critique of Leo XIII's Practical Proposals

George summarizes Leo's proposal for improving the condition of labor under three headings.

1. That the State should step in to prevent overwork, to restrict the employment of women and children, to secure in workshops conditions not unfavorable to health and morals, and, at least where there is danger of insufficient wages provoking strikes, to regulate wages.

2. That it should encourage the acquisition of property (in land) by workingmen.

3. That workingmen's associations should be formed.

George broadly characterizes all of Leo's proposals socialistic, though an extremely moderate form of socialism. George doesn't believe any of Leo's suggestions can be effective. Limiting the hours of labor and the employment of women and children is futile as long as people are living in a penurious condition. Nor can the State cure poverty by regulating wages. According to George, the level of wages depends on the "ease or difficulty with which labor can obtain access to land..." The only way the State could override the effect of market tendencies on wages is to provide employment to all who wish it, or to sanction strikes and to support them with government funds.

Furthermore, all efforts by the State to promote ownership of land by working people will prove futile. With the advent of material progress, "land becomes more valuable," and, when this increasing value is left to private owners, "land must pass from the ownership of the poor into the ownership of the rich." The only way to prevent this from occurring is to allow possession but not ownership of land, that is to say, to take the profits of land ownership for the community.

Thirdly, George takes issue with Leo's endorsement of labor unions. George believes that unions are necessarily selfish; they must attempt to hurt non-union workers by limiting or even obliterating their natural right to work.

By the law of their being they must fight for their own hand, regardless of who is hurt; they ignore and must ignore the teaching of Christ that we should do to others as we would have them to do to us, which a true political economy shows is the only way to the full emancipation of the masses.
George admits that unions may improve the lot of some workers by the use of force or the threat of force. They are in his mind a palliative, not a remedy for poverty amidst plenty. Surely, he says to Leo, true unionism does not have "that moral character which could alone justify one in the position of your Holiness in urging it as good in itself." George believes that Leo had no other alternatives because he insists on justifying property in land.

Another mistake Pope Leo is seen as making is to assume that the labor question concerns the relation between wage-workers and their employers. As a matter of fact, says George, most people work for themselves and not for an employer. George contends that the remedies proposed by Leo do not take the self-employed into consideration. Furthermore, Leo assumes that all employers are rich. In fact, says George, many are struggling against their competitors to stay in business.

George also questions Leo's assumption that humanity will always be divided into two classes, the rich and the poor. In George's mind the division of classes into rich and poor stems from a violation of the natural law, from force and fraud perpetrated by some on others. If everyone had access to land, there would no longer be any poverty.

George also chides Leo XIII for seeming to direct his sympathy exclusively toward the poor. George asks,

Are not the rich, the idlers to be pitied also? By the word of the gospel it is the rich rather than the poor who call for pity, for the presumption is that they will share the fate of the poor.

George then proceeds to describe the vices from which the rich often suffer on this earth, implying that they need more spiritual help than the poor. George refers to the story of the rich young man in the gospel in order to show that Jesus showed concern for the rich.

When Christ told the rich young man who sought him to sell all he had and to give it to the poor, he was not thinking of the poor, but of the young man.

George further argues that it is "a violation of Christian charity to speak of the rich as though they individually were responsible for the sufferings of the poor." The cause of "monstrous wealth" and "degrading poverty," says George, stems primarily from the existence of private property in land. The answer to the social question, then, lies not in taxing the rich, no matter how rich they might be. George, like John Locke, even argues that the honest acquisition of wealth necessarily adds to the wealth of the world and thus contributes to the well-being of all.

George also criticizes Leo for asserting the right of workers to employment and the right to receive from employers "a certain indefinite wage." "No such rights exist," Leo invents these two false rights, according to George, because
he defends private property in land, thereby severely threatening the well being of many people.

The natural right which each man has is not that of demanding employment or wages from another but that of employing himself—that of applying by his own labor to the inexhaustible storehouse which the Creator has in the land provided for all men.26

The only way to open up the land to all is by restricting the right of land ownership to the community by means of the “single tax.”

As for requiring employers to pay a certain wage to workers, George objects on two grounds: employers should not be obliged to pay any more than the market requires, and workers should never be satisfied with any rate of wage since it is human nature to desire more and more of the comforts of life. George couples a faith in the free market with a scepticism that man’s desires for more things can ever be moderated. In another context, George does argue that the abolition of insecurity would moderate people’s pursuit of wealth.

George also chides Pope Leo for stressing the role of charity in improving conditions of labor. The stress must be on justice, says George. He further implies that Leo XIII is really commending charity as a substitute for justice with the following results. First, while charity may mitigate somewhat the effects of injustice, it can never get to the root cause. Charity, which does not build on justice, leaves intact an unjust status quo. Secondly, charity “demoralizes its recipients” turning them into beggars and paupers. Thirdly, charity softens the consciences of those who profit from unjust political and social conditions.

Worst of all, writes George, substituting charity for justice is an occasion for teachers of the Christian religion to “placate mammon” while “persuading themselves that they are serving God.” For example, George implies that if American Christians had condemned slavery as unjust instead of preaching kindness to slave owners, there would not have been a civil war. In short, George believes that “stressing the clear-cut demands of justice” rather than “the vague injunctions of charity” will improve the condition of labor and help preserve the integrity of Christian faith and morals. George doesn’t believe that charity requires Christians to address seriously the social and philosophical problems of the day.27

George further argues that the rich can do little or nothing to improve the conditions of labor by acts of largesse. George specifically rules out the utility of giving money to the poor; building churches, schools, colleges, hospitals, tenements, workshops for scientific experiments, refusing rent for land or lowering rentals, or beautifying cities. The rich man “can do nothing at all except to use his strength for the abolition of the great primary wrong that
robs men of their birthright. That wrong, of course, is the State-sanctioned private ownership of land.

George argues that in applying moral teaching to society "the question, What is wise? may always safely be subordinated to the question, What is right?" George means that people should not rest content with stating wise principles, but advocate measures which will indeed be effective in eradicating unjust situations. For example, George admires that Leo wisely says that "God owes to man an inexhaustible storehouse which he finds only in the land."

The pope, however, George believes, does not draw the right conclusion from that principle, viz., that the Catholic Church should no longer defend the right to private property in land. George applauds Leo's statement that all men are children of God, have the same last end and are redeemed by Jesus Christ, but criticizes him for justifying the possession of private property in land by a few.

... you give us equal rights in heaven but deny us equal rights on earth? It is thus that your encyclical gives the gospel to laborers and the earth to the landlords.

George suggests to Leo XIII that people are turning away from organized religion because it doesn't offer solutions to the problems the world is facing. In particular, organized religion has failed to say clearly what is wrong with the conditions of labor and, of course, has failed to provide satisfactory answers.

George concludes that Leo XIII has correctly discerned the problem labor is facing. "Reduced to its lowest expression it is the poverty of men willing to work." Workers lack bread. George then argues that Leo XIII has not explained why people lack bread. It is not God's fault, says George. He has provided all the bread people need for life. Some people have thwarted the Creator's benevolent intentions by legalizing private property in land. The solution to the problem of labor is very simple: disallow private ownership of land.

Any other answer than that, no matter how it may be shrouded in the mere form of religion, is practically an atheistical answer.

George is arguing that one structural change will be sufficient to bring about a just society; he implies that the sins of men, wherever their nature or gravity, cannot pose a new obstacle to the realization of that goal.

III

A Summary of Leo XIII's Rerum Novarum

Leo XIII's position on the ownership of property has more nuances than George's letter reveals. The pope does indeed argue that nature gives a right
to the ownership of land and the fruits of one's labor. In arguing that people have a right (ius) to property, the pope departs from the thought of Thomas Aquinas, who simply said that it is licit and necessary to possess property. Leo's stress on the natural right to property sounds more like Locke than Aquinas. By asserting that the right to property must be regarded as sacred, Leo XIII invests the ownership of property with more importance and dignity than it had in the mind of Aquinas, who nevertheless contended that ownership serves three important purposes in society: it promotes industry, order, and peace. Aquinas did argue, however, that "the division of possessions is not according to natural right, but rather arose from human agreement. . . . Hence the ownership of possessions is not contrary to natural right, but an addition thereto devised by human reason." The pope's stress on the sacredness of property is balanced by comments on the use of wealth, inspired by the Bible and Thomas Aquinas. Unlike Locke, Leo holds that there are limits on the use of wealth. Citing Thomas Aquinas, the pontiff writes,

. . . man ought not regard external goods as his own, but as common so that, in fact, a person should readily share them when he sees others in need. Wherefore the Apostle says: "Charge the rich of this world . . . to give readily, to share with others." According to Leo, then, there is no absolute right to the ownership of land or the fruits of one's labor. Christians have an obligation to use their property and talents for the good of others.

. . . whoever has received from the bounty of God a greater share of goods, whether corporeal and external, or of the soul, has received them for this purpose, namely, that he employ them for his own perfection and, likewise, as a servant of Divine Providence, for the benefit of others. Leo is not arguing that law should enforce the generous use of property and talent, except in cases of extreme need. These are duties of charity to which all Christians are bound in order to be faithful to God's will. Given these duties of charity, education to virtue or character formation takes on great importance. Without the proper formation, people will not be inclined to share their property or use their intellectual and spiritual talents for the benefit of others.

George does not advert to the limits Leo places on the use of property. This omission is partially understandable because George is intent on maintaining the inviolability of the fruits of one's labor. Since George places limits on the ownership of land, it is surprising that he doesn't point out the similarity between his position and Leo's. George desires to facilitate the access to the possession of land by all through a tax on land; Leo desires to assure access
to all goods of the earth by teaching that charity requires Christians to share their wealth and talent. But this is far from all that he teaches on the possession and use of property.

Leo's teaching on the role of the State, as we will presently see, indicates that property in land is not an absolute right of the individual. The pope clearly implies that the State may lay down laws regulating the use and possession of property for the sake of the common good. Pius XI in *Quadragesimo Anno* (1931) is more explicit in asserting the authority of the State over property. He lays down as a principle that property has both an individual and a social character. Private ownership must serve not only the interests of the individual but also the public welfare.

Therefore, public authority always under the guiding light of the natural and divine law can determine more accurately upon considerations of the true requirements of the common good what is permitted and what is not permitted to owners in the use of their property.**

By moderating the possession and use of private property for the sake of the common good, the State does no injury to private owners. On the contrary, the State's action is really a friendly service since it "effectively prevents the private possession of goods ... from causing intolerable evils and thus rushing to its own destruction." By taking property, the State will, ironically, preserve property rights. Without State intervention, Pius XI implies, the needs of many people would not be met, thereby threatening the stability of the political and social order.

The private ownership of land and other property is admittedly an imperfect social arrangement. The disadvantages of private ownership, in Leo's mind, are not to be corrected by socialism or communism but by the teaching of the Church on faith and morals, the laws of the State and the action of private associations. This teaching is not peculiar to Catholicism but has striking similarities with classical political philosophy. For example, Aristotle clearly prefers private property to a system of community of property, but only in conjunction with the right kind of laws and the proper character formation.

... moral virtue will insure that the property of each is made to serve the use of all, in the spirit of the proverb which says: "friends' goods are goods in common." [*Politics 1265a]*

The education to moral virtue will produce opposite customs in the citizens which together with legislation will serve to obviate the disadvantages of private property.

From this brief summary to Leo XIII's teaching on property, it should be evident that the pope puts the social problem of the poverty and unjust working conditions of laborers in a much broader context than Henry George.
This section of my essay will explain Leo's view that resolution of the social problem hinges on the contribution of religion and the church, the government, and individuals, together with voluntary associations.

Leo XIII believed that all efforts to solve the problems of poverty and unjust working conditions will be in vain unless principles of Christian living drawn from the Gospel are taught to people in all ranks of society.

And since religion alone as we said in the beginning can remove the evil, root and branch, let all reflect upon this: First and foremost Christian morals must be reestablished, without which even the weapons of prudence, which are considered especially effective, will be of no avail to secure well being.  

To be reestablished, Christian morals must be presented clearly and energetically by the ministers of the Gospel.

The Church improves the social order not only by regulating the life and morals of individuals but by instructing the mind.

...she strives to enter into men's minds and to bend their wills so that they may suffer themselves to be ruled and governed by the discipline of the divine precepts.

Leo's examples of that instruction, while no means intended to be complete, are sufficient to be quite indicative. He first mentions the ineluctability of inequality and the inevitability of evil. Leo teaches that inequality will always be a characteristic of civil society because there are great and many natural differences among men. Inequality is beneficial to society. Leo continues, because of the varied aptitudes that living in community requires. Because of sin there will always be injustice in society. No action by the Church, the government or voluntary association will be able to remove all tribulations from human life. While moral progress is possible, it is not inevitable. Leo further holds that the belief in the eradicability of evil and the social consequences of sin will eventually lead to greater evils.

The Church also teaches, says Leo, that one class of society is not by nature hostile to another. Through its teaching, the Church always attempts to moderate conflict between any antagonists, especially the rich and the poor.

But for putting an end to conflict and for cutting away its very roots, there is wondrous and multiple power in Christian institutions.

Leo then goes on to list the duties of the poor and workers, as well as those of rich men and employers. For example, workers are enjoined to perform their work thoroughly and conscientiously. Employers are told that one of their important duties is to pay a just wage. If workers and employers performed their duties, the bitterness and curse of conflict between them would cease.

Leo then introduces the Church's teaching on eternal life. 'We cannot understand and evaluate moral things rightly unless the mind reflects upon
the other life, the life which is immortal." Leo clearly implies that workers and employers will not understand their respective duties unless they see this life as a preparation for eternal life. Only then will both classes have the proper perspectives on riches, deprivation and earthly sorrows.

Leo next reminds the rich of the words of Jesus about the obstacles posed by wealth for the attainment of eternal happiness. The pope explains the Catholic position on the use of material goods and the goods of the soul. After satisfying the demands of necessity and propriety, "it is a duty to give to the poor out of that which remains." This duty rests on belief in the social nature of man. Because man is a political or social animal, he has duties toward his neighbors. If he were by nature a radical individual with no natural ties to the community, then it would be reasonable to speak simply of the rights of man, of rights to property. According to Leo XIII, the duty to use property and talents well takes precedence over rights. Any right to property or anything else is derivative from duties.

Catholic teaching not only requires generosity from those that have, but calls for friendship and brotherly love between the rich and the poor. If the economy of duties and rights according to Christian teaching were widely accepted, then it seems, says Leo, that all conflict would cease.

The purpose of the State is to cause both private and public well being through its institutions and laws. States achieve well being through the following:

- wholesome morality, properly ordered family life, protection of religion and justice,
- moderate imposition and equitable distribution of public burdens, progressive development of industry and trade, thriving agriculture, and by all other things of this nature.

Still other factors contributing to the private and public welfare are, of course, peace and good order, punishment for crime, strong citizens capable of supporting and protecting the State, competent, sustained work for the dignity of all people, a moral and healthy atmosphere in one's place of work. In any case where these elements of a flourishing State are threatened "the power and authority of the law, but of course within certain limits, manifestly ought to be employed." The law ought not to attempt more than the remedy of the evil requires. Since the use of material goods is an element of a well constituted State and necessary for virtue, the State must make sure that there is an adequate supply and a just distribution. It is the State's responsibility to protect all citizens "maintaining inviolate that justice especially which is called distributive." For example, the State must see to it that workers have adequate housing, clothing, and security, and the State must give special consideration to the poor and the weak.

Other duties of the State are as follows: restrain those who stir up disorder
and incite workers to violence; anticipate and prevent the evil of strikes by removing early the causes of discontent; protect the goods of the soul; limit the hours of work so that people will not be crushed in spirit or body; shield women and especially children from physical labor beyond their capacity; intervene, if necessary, to make sure that wages are sufficient to support a thrifty worker and his family, and safeguard the sacred right to private property.

From the protection of the right to property by the State will flow the following benefits: a more equitable distribution of goods, a greater abundance of national wealth and as a consequence a strong incentive to remain in the country of one's birth. Leo explains that the opportunity to possess private property will stir the workers to become more productive, thus making a significant contribution to national wealth. The pope also suggests that the eagerness to acquire property will at length remove the difference between extreme wealth and extreme poverty.47

Not only the Church and government can make a significant contribution to the resolution of the social question but also the employers and workers themselves. In other words individuals can form various kinds of associations in order to promote the well being of various groups, especially those who can not help themselves. The pope first praises associations for giving mutual aid, i.e. those caring for children, adolescents and the aged and those providing for the families of workers who die prematurely or become incapacitated through sickness or accidents.

Leo ascribes the most importance to associations of workers, either alone or of workers with employers. The purpose of these workers' associations should be to procure for individual members "an increase in the goods of body, of soul, and of prosperity."48 Their principal goal, says Leo XIII, should, of course, be moral and religious perfection. To accomplish this goal Leo suggests that associations provide opportunity for religious instruction so that workers may understand clearly their duties to God, neighbor, and self. For example, workers must be taught that the sacraments "are the divine means for purifying the soul from the stains of sin and for attaining sanctity."49

Among the most important services to be provided by workers associations are as follows:

that the workers at no time be without sufficient work, and that the wages paid into the treasury of the association furnish the means of assisting individual members in need, not only during sudden and unforeseen changes in industry, but also wherever anyone is stricken by sickness, old age, or by misfortune.50

So, even though Leo stresses the spiritual role of workers associations, he expects them to deliver adequate financial help to needy members.

Leo thinks that the existence of associations is very important for the
wellbeing of society. In fact as “man is permitted by his right of nature to form associations, the State does not have the authority to forbid them.”52 The State may, of course, regulate or even oppose associations if their objectives are clearly at variance “with good morals, with justice or with the welfare of the State.”52 The pope’s position on associations follows from the well established principle that man is a social animal.

Just as man is drawn by this natural propensity into civil union and association, so also he seeks with his fellow citizens to form other societies, admittedly small and not perfect, but societies none the less.59 Without associations, including the commonwealth, people could not provide for their physical needs nor develop their intellectual and spiritual lives.

Thus we see that there are two bases to Catholic social thought. One, established by theological reflection and philosophical inquiry, is the truth that each individual human person is of unique worth in the economy of all Creation. But every person has an obligation of stewardship vis-à-vis every aspect of Creation. The biblical writer described our relationship to things in the same terms, “stewardship.” We have a duty to use our material resources and our talents for the benefit of others.

Of course things are ours—the world is our oyster—but we have to give a strict accounting to the real Owner whose title, one may remind Lockean economists, arises from production.

The other, as was evident above, is the notion of the common good, the public weal, the public or general interest. This will be explored in a succeeding paper.54

Notes

1. Pope Leo XIII. Rerum Novarum (Boston: Daughters of St. Paul). Leo XIII’s encyclical was made public on May 15, 1891. All references will be to the numbers in this translation which has been authorized by the Holy See. The text used by Henry George was an unauthorized translation and contains different paragraph numbers.


3. Ibid., p. 5.
5. The Land Question, p. 6.
6. Ibid., p. 8.

7. Ibid., p. 12.
8. Ibid., p. 17.
9. Ibid., p. 15.
10. Ibid., p. 21.
11. Ibid., p. 34.
12. Ibid., p. 62.
13. Ibid., p. 44.
16. Ibid., p. 382.
17. Ibid., p. 387.
18. The Land Question, p. 70.
19. Ibid., p. 73.
20. Ibid., p. 76.
21. Ibid., p. 78.
22. Ibid., p. 80.
23. Ibid., p. 85.
24. Ibid., p. 86.
25. Ibid., p. 87.
26. Ibid., p. 90.
27. Ibid., p. 93.
28. Ibid., p. 96.
29. Ibid., pp. 96-97.
30. Ibid., p. 98.
31. Ibid., p. 100.
32. Ibid., p. 101.
34. Ibid.
36. Rerum Novarum, #56.
37. Ibid.
40. Rerum Novarum, #72.
41. Ibid., #40.
42. Ibid., #28.
43. Ibid., #33.
44. Ibid., #36.
45. Ibid., #48.
46. Ibid., #49.
47. Ibid., #66, 67.
48. Ibid., #76.
49. Ibid., #76.
50. Ibid., #79.
51. Ibid., #72.
52. Ibid., #79.
53. Ibid., #70.