

Engineering the Imperial Mind: Environmentalism and Psychological Trauma in the Formative Years of William Conway

Dr. Rekha B. Raveendran

Assistant Professor, Department of Psychology, Nehru Arts and Science College, Coimbatore, Tamil Nadu, India

Abstract—The paper examines Paul Scott's 1962 novel, *The Birds of Paradise*, as a profound psychological autopsy of the British imperial project and its subsequent collapse. By tracing the development of the protagonist, William "Piscine" Conway, from his formative years in the princely state of Gopalkand to his post-colonial return in 1961, the study explores how the colonial apparatus utilized behavioral conditioning and John Locke's "environmentalism" to engineer a "colonial master" identity. The narrative illustrates the "epistemological difficulty" of reconciling the romanticized myths of the Raj with the stark, fragmented realities of a post-independence India. Central to this analysis is the "Birds of Paradise" metaphor, representing the static, artificial existence of both British officers and Indian princes caught in the "Maya" (illusion) of imperial permanency. Through a lens of eco-psychology and Lacanian theory, the paper highlights Conway's transition from a state of colonial anxiety and "lack" to one of empathy and psychological restoration. Ultimately, the work concludes that true healing for the colonial subject—both occupier and occupied—requires the dismantling of racial mythology and a face-to-face encounter with the authentic, non-romanticized history of the nation.

Index Terms—Colonial Discourse, Behavioral Conditioning, Princely States, Racial Mythology.

I. INTRODUCTION

The publication of *The Birds of Paradise* in 1962 remains a watershed moment in the career of Paul Scott, serving as the creative and commercial catalyst that empowered him to later undertake his definitive works, *The Raj Quartet* and *Staying On* (1977). While Scott is often remembered for his meticulous chronicling of the twilight of British India, this

particular novel represents what critic Patrick Swinden (1980) calls a significant "pre-Raj achievement." It is a work that functions as both a historical record and a psychological autopsy of the colonial mind. Through a sophisticated narrative architecture, Scott explores the intricate "states of mind" of his protagonist, Piscine Conway, whose personal evolution mirrors the turbulent transformation of the Indian subcontinent from 1919 to 1962.

At its core, the novel investigates the profound tension between individual lives and the vast, often indifferent machinery of history. Scott utilizes Conway's journey to delve into the "epistemological question"—the inherent difficulty of arriving at an objective truth when one's perception is clouded by racial mythology and imperial indoctrination. The narrative follows Conway from his birth in the princely state of Gopalkand through the harrowing years of World War II, and finally to his post-colonial return in the early 1960s. This trajectory allows Scott to examine the "psychological scars" left by the colonial era, specifically the isolation of individuals who find themselves caught between two worlds, belonging fully to neither.

The novel's thematic depth is further enriched by its exploration of the "lost paradise" of childhood and the existential conflict between those who cling to colonial illusions and those who are forced to confront reality. By framing India not merely as a setting but as a psychological landscape, Scott exposes the "racial myths" that sustained British rule—the belief in a "civilizing mission" and the "White Man's Burden." As Conway attempts to reconcile the romanticized India of his youth with the stark, fragmented reality of the post-independence era, the novel becomes a

critique of the "dualism" inherent in the colonial system. It exposes how the British utilized environmental conditioning and behavioral engineering to mold young minds into "colonial masters," only to leave them adrift when the imperial apparatus eventually dissolved.

II. CHRONOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVES: CONWAY AND THE EVOLUTION OF THE COLONIAL SYSTEM

The narrative spans a critical historical arc, encompassing the final decades of British rule (1919–1947) and the transformative post-colonial era (1948–1962). Through this timeline, the novel exposes the internal mechanics of the imperial apparatus and its eventual dissolution. The protagonist, Conway, is presented as a direct byproduct of this history; his personal identity and worldview are shaped by his shifting encounters with the colonial environment. During his sabbatical, he engages in a retrospective analysis, contrasting his early experiences with his present reality to reveal a life segmented into distinct developmental stages.

Conway's evolution is mapped across several key periods: his initial Indian boyhood (1919–1929), his education in England (1929–1939), his service as an army officer during World War II (1939–1945), a brief post-war return to the subcontinent (1945–1946), his marriage and career in England (1946–1960), and finally, his sabbatical return to India in 1962. These frequent transitions between the East and West facilitate a comparative study of the colonial and post-colonial conditions. As the story unfolds, it becomes clear that Conway is ensnared in the psychological dualism of the colonial system. His journey represents an attempt to reconcile the "romanticized" illusions of the British Raj with the objective realities of a changing nation, as he strives to confront the authentic, post-colonial India.

III. THE COLONIAL BLUEPRINT: CONWAY'S FORMATIVE YEARS (1919–1929)

Conway's developmental journey begins with his birth in 1919 in the princely state of Gopalkand. This initial decade is critical to understanding the mechanics of a colonial upbringing. According to John Locke, the child's mind is most supple at this early stage, acting

as a *tabula rasa* upon which the environment can imprint specific values and behaviors (Locke 1693). Recognizing this potential, Conway's father ensures the boy is groomed within a strictly colonial framework, intending to mold him into a future "colonial master." This grooming is achieved through a "patterning process," where the child's actions and worldviews are organized through deliberate social structures (Gesell & Ilg 1943). In Conway's case, this involves a phase-wise education conducted by specific mentors who utilize principles of association, repetition, imitation, and a system of rewards and punishments. This rigorous conditioning ensures that by the age of ten, Conway has already begun to internalize the complexities of the British presence in India. He learns to navigate the boundaries of racial mingling and starts to rationalize the "civilizing mission" that defined the imperial spirit.

Applying Albert Bandura's theory of "social learning," Conway's development is a result of witnessing and re-enacting the behaviors of the influential adults in his life (Bandura 1977). His reality is strictly regulated by three primary figures: his colonialist father, who embodies the authority of the Raj; Mrs. Canterbury ("Canter"), a governess with a messianic devotion to British values; and Grayson-Hume, a pragmatic historian who provides the intellectual and professional justification for the colonial vocation. By the time Conway is sent to England in 1929, he is no longer just a child, but a product of imperial engineering with a fully developed colonial mentality.

IV. ENVIRONMENTALISM VS. NATURALISM IN COLONIAL DISCOURSE

The colonial education system heavily favored John Locke's philosophy of "environmentalism," which posits that a child's mind is a *tabula rasa* or blank slate. Within this framework, colonial authorities sought to overwrite a child's natural inclinations with a strict code of imperial conduct. This approach stood in direct opposition to Jean-Jacques Rousseau's "naturalism," a more scientific notion suggesting that children should develop according to their inherent nature, free from the corrupting artificiality of society. For an English child in India, naturalism was viewed as a threat to the development of a "proper" colonial identity.

A clear example of this is found during Conway's childhood in Tradura. At the age of five, he was intentionally separated from his Indian *ayah* and placed under the strict governance of Mrs. Canterbury (Canters). This move was designed specifically to insulate him from the perceived "influence of a native woman," which the colonial system feared would soften the boy's resolve or "infect" him with local sensibilities. Under Canters' supervision, Conway was instead systematically infused with a fascination for the British imperial enterprise.

Mrs. Canterbury's role was to frame the British Empire as a moral endeavor, prioritizing the "civilizing mission" over the stark reality of resource exploitation and the erasure of indigenous traditions. By leaning into the myth of the "white man's burden," she provided Conway with a moral justification for his father's colonial business. As Lev Vygotsky's sociocultural theory suggests, the predominant culture into which a child is born exerts a profound influence on their internal value system (Vygotsky 1929). Consequently, by replacing native companionship with imperial mentorship, the colonial system successfully shaped Conway's development to serve the ideological needs of the Empire.

V. IMPERIAL ENGINEERING: BEHAVIORAL CONDITIONING AND THE COLONIAL PSYCHE

Conway's development as a child is a textbook illustration of behavioral conditioning, aligning with the learning theories of Ivan Pavlov and B.F. Skinner. These theories posit that a child's behavior is essentially a product of their external environment, formed by "conditioning" through specific stimuli (Pavlov 1928). In the colonial setting, the overarching "stimulus" is the ideology of racial supremacy. This concept, reinforced by his surroundings, dictates Conway's behavior and shapes his self-perception. He begins to view himself and his fellow Englishmen not merely as administrators, but as messianic figures whose presence in India constitutes a "moral exile" dedicated to civilizing the "heathen" natives. This conditioning is deeply rooted in the young boy's perception of his father. Conway views his father's authority over the princely states as a "sacred trust"—a natural right to guide, reward, and punish those who lacked the "vital element" of British character. Mrs. Canterbury (Canters) plays a pivotal role in this

process by translating abstract imperial theory into practical examples drawn from his father's career. For instance, when Conway witnesses the Maharajah's power, he does not see an independent ruler; instead, he sees a projection of his father's superiority, as it is his father who ultimately "told him what to do" (Scott 1986). This reinforcement strengthens Conway's surge of imperial pride and his burgeoning sense of duty.

The intellectual scaffolding for this conditioning is provided by Grayson-Hume, who explains the dual nature of British India: the provinces under direct rule and the semi-autonomous princely states. Through this lens, Conway learns to interpret his father's life as a noble sacrifice aimed at eradicating "feudal injustices" and raising the standards of Indian subjects. Canters reinforces this by celebrating the loyalty of the princes, framing the British as the "true dispensers of divine justice." She explicitly tasks Conway with his future role: "it will be your job to go helping these people to live better lives" (Scott 1986). However, this conditioning also incorporates a darker element: the stimulus of fear. Canters and Grayson-Hume ensure that Conway's imperial pride is tempered by a constant awareness of threat. They remind him of the 1857 Mutiny and warn that the "barbarism" of the natives could erupt at any moment. Grayson-Hume specifically points to the contemporary Civil Disobedience Movement led by Gandhi as a sophisticated uprising that might render traditional military force obsolete. This complex interplay of moral superiority, perceived sacrifice, and existential fear effectively molds Conway's psyche, making his subsequent actions as a colonial officer a predictable outcome of his early environmental conditioning.

VI. BIOLOGICAL MATURATION AND THE CONFLICT OF IDENTITY

While Conway's development was heavily conditioned by his environment, it was simultaneously governed by internal biological maturation. According to Gesell and Ilg (1943), the maturation process—the unfolding of genetic potential—works alongside external influences to shape an individual. As Conway entered adolescence, his psychological growth involved constructing a personal identity that often collided with his rigid political orientation.

In the colonial context, the construction of the "Western self" necessitates the presence of an "Other"

to serve as a contrasting image (McLeod 2007). Krishi, as an oriental representative, becomes the essential mirror through which Conway defines his own personality and experience. The latent tensions of this dynamic surface when both boys develop an interest in Dora. Conway subconsciously recognizes that his status as a leader depends on maintaining a specific hierarchy; Krishi's proximity to Dora threatens Conway's burgeoning "white masculinity." This threat triggers the manifestation of a colonial masculinity characterized by dominance and heroism. When Conway engages in a wrestling bout with Krishi, his physical aggression is an attempt to reassert a perceived natural order. The conflict reaches a verbal peak when Conway gives voice to the racial prejudices ingrained in him by the colonial system, derogatorily asserting his superiority based solely on his British identity. As he later admits, he utilized Krishi as a "standard of comparison" to aggrandize himself in front of Dora.

However, the narrative reveals a profound internal struggle within Conway. While he stereotypes Krishi to protect his role as a "colonial master," he simultaneously experiences shame and a desire for genuine friendship. This conflict highlights the ambivalence of colonial discourse: the tension between the urge to humiliate the "Other" and the desire to erase "radical otherness" by bringing the individual into the fold of Western understanding. Conway's psychological development is thus a battlefield between his biological drive for human connection and the artificial racial boundaries imposed by his upbringing.

VII. PERFORMING COLONIAL MYTH VS. PERFORMING COLONIAL REALITY

Conway's interpretation of political crisis remains heavily filtered through a lens of racial exceptionalism. He views his father's interference in the Maharajah's succession as "logical" while dismissing the Maharajah's own choice as "illogical." This perspective is a direct result of the "White Man" myth—an internalized belief that the British are the sole embodiments of stability and righteousness amidst native anarchy. His childhood fear that his father's reforms would vanish without British-sanctioned heirs signifies a psychological rejection of Indian agency and independence.

Nurtured on the myths of the Raj, young Conway is blind to the racial injustices of occupation. While the Indian populace began to recognize the "civilizing mission" as a mere colonial trope used to facilitate resource exploitation, Conway remained a captive of the narrative. Interestingly, he did experience moments of personal dissonance; for example, feeling subordinate during the Maharajah's birthday celebration or a *shikar* (hunt) caused him internal distress. Yet, while he was sensitive to his own perceived humiliation, his racial conditioning prevented him from empathizing with the systemic pain of the colonized. He became, much like his pet bird Melba, a creature trained to sing only the "song of glory" for the British Empire.

VIII. THE "MISFIT" IN THE METROPOLE: 1929–1939

Upon returning to England in 1929, Conway encounters a profound psychological crisis: he is a "misfit" in a society devoid of the colonial hierarchy. The rigid demarcation between "self" and "other" that defined his identity in India does not exist in the English countryside. Having been engineered for a life of command, he finds himself functionally useless in his homeland. He views his English residence, Four Birches, as a place of "temporary exile," clinging to the "roots" he brought from India rather than planting new ones in British soil.

Conway's struggle in England illustrates the burden of a colonial upbringing. His identity, built entirely on "difference" and comparison, lacks its necessary foil; there is no Krishi to dominate and no princely state to govern. In Lacanian terms, Conway experiences a profound "lack"—a gap in his being that he seeks to fulfill by constantly searching for an Indian context in England. His only solace during this period comes from his father's letters, which he reads through a nostalgic haze, treating them as a summons to eventually return and resume his "divine duty" of civilizing the natives.

IX. PSYCHOLOGICAL TRAUMA AND GUILT CONSCIOUSNESS

Conway's return to India in 1946 marks a profound psychological shift, triggered by his witness to the mistreatment of Indian soldiers in wartime prison

camps. This experience "derails" him from the traditional colonial track, allowing him to perceive the Indian landscape through a lens of empathy rather than authority. Upon reaching Gopalakand, he finds the princely states ensnared in a desperate illusion. While Indian nationalists intensified their push for independence, the rulers remained anchored in the belief that the British Crown acted as their eternal guardian against the "jackals" of domestic politics.

Diggy Row's son embodies this denial, convinced that the British would never abandon their "sacred trust" to the vultures of the Indian National Congress. However, the geopolitical reality was far bleaker. As historian Trevor notes, the subcontinent was fractured by competing demands: Hindus seeking succession, Muslims demanding a separate state, and Sikhs pressing for Khalistan (Trevor 2006). The rise of the Labour Government in England shattered the "independent and benevolent autocratic" dreams of states like Gopalakand. Conway realizes that the British had never intended to grant these states true independence; rather, the Political Department had attempted to form a federation merely as a strategic buffer to suppress the burgeoning nationalist movement. The British policy was a calculated effort to sustain an "illusion of permanency" while preparing to cut the states adrift.

The 1946 Cripps Mission delivered the final blow: the suspension of paramountcy meant that the British would no longer adhere to their treaties. The states were left to "fend for themselves" in a state of chaos. For Conway, this revelation destroys the "romantic period" of his childhood. He recognizes the "ugly face" of British colonialism—a system that, having exploited a nation's resources and social fabric through "divide and rule," was now abandoning it to dissolution. The metaphorical climax of this realization is found in the chess matches between Conway and his father. This game serves as a microcosm for the history of the Raj: Conway's black pieces represent Indian nationalism, while his father's white pieces represent the British imperial service.

The game illustrates how a series of strategic blunders and "wrong moves" by the British administration provided the ground for the nationalist movement to overthrow colonial rule. The defeat of Conway's father symbolizes the broader failure of the British political officers to safeguard the interests they claimed to protect. Ultimately, the decision to leave was made by

bureaucrats in England who viewed the colonies as an "unbearable business" to be discarded. Conway's journey concludes with the painful understanding that the British, whom he once saw as messianic guides, were the architects of a tragic and fragmented aftermath.

X. COLONIAL ANXIETY AND THE SEARCH FOR RECLUSE

Conway's departure for England in 1945 is less a homecoming and more an escape from the mounting horrors of a dying colonial system. He deliberately avoids bringing his father back to England, fearing that the elder Conway's presence would serve as a living monument to the pain, sacrifice, and ultimately failed sensibilities of the Empire. Paul Scott's titular metaphor is clear: men like Conway's father were the "Birds of Paradise"—beautiful, exotic creatures of a bygone era, now left to rot amidst the wreckage of British colonialism. This tragic decline is rooted in "colonial ambivalence" (McLeod 2007). The imperial psyche was torn between two contradictory impulses: the civilizing myth that urged making the natives "white-like," and a deep-seated fear of ever actually treating them as equals. This ambivalence left the nation in a fractured, hybrid state. While princely states yearned for a return to feudal autocracy, the nationalists strove to maintain the Westernized systems the British were abandoning.

Upon his final return to India in 1961, Conway seeks to verify the reality behind the reports and newspapers he had consumed in England. He recognizes that for the British, the Empire had become a form of *Maya* (illusion)—a grand drama they could eventually walk away from once they foresaw the inevitable end in 1935. However, for the rulers of the princely states, this illusion was a totalizing reality. When the "magical spell" shattered in 1947, the British were prepared to face the bitter truth, but the princes were left in a state of political coma. Conway finds this tragedy personified in Krishi. Once a figure of potential and "standard of comparison," Krishi now harbors deep contempt for the British. He represents the "ultimate sufferer"—a prince uprooted politically, historically, and culturally. Having been excluded from the historical development of his own state and unable to integrate into the new India, Krishi stands as

the last, powerless representative of a kingdom stripped of its glory.

XI. CONCLUSION: THE SHATTERED MIRROR OF EMPIRE

The trajectory of William "Piscine" Conway in *The Birds of Paradise* serves as a profound psychological autopsy of the British imperial project, illustrating the transition from a meticulously engineered "colonial master" to a disillusioned post-colonial observer. Through the lens of eco-psychology and behavioral conditioning, Paul Scott demonstrates that the colonial system was not merely a political or economic structure, but a psychological environment that fundamentally altered the human psyche. The resolution of Conway's journey, culminating in his 1961 return to an independent India, underscores the ultimate futility of the "civilizing myth" and the deep-seated trauma born from the collision of imperial illusion and post-colonial reality.

Conway's development reveals the extent to which the British Raj relied on "environmentalism" to sustain its power. By treating the minds of children like Conway as a *tabula rasa*, the colonial apparatus imprinted a rigid code of racial superiority and "messianic" duty. However, as the narrative concludes, it becomes evident that this conditioning was a fragile architecture built upon a foundation of "Maya" or illusion. The tragedy of the "Birds of Paradise" metaphor is realized in the figure of Conway senior and the Indian Princes; both groups were specimens of a fabricated environment, preserved like the stuffed birds in the Maharaja's palace—beautiful to behold, yet entirely devoid of life and agency once their artificial ecosystem was dismantled. The 1947 partition and the subsequent suspension of paramountcy acted as the final blow to this fantasy, leaving those who lived within the myth in a state of "political coma."

The statistics of the era highlight the staggering scale of this transition. In 1947, the British withdrew from a subcontinent that was home to approximately 390 million people. The imperial strategy of "divide and rule" left behind a legacy of fragmentation: the British partitioned the land into two primary nations (India and Pakistan), but they also left behind 562 princely states that covered roughly 40% of India's land area and contained 23% of its population. These states, which had collectively maintained their own armies

and administrative systems under the umbrella of British paramountcy, were suddenly expected to integrate into a modern democratic framework for which they had never been prepared. For characters like Krishi, the "ultimate sufferer," this meant the loss of historical continuity. These rulers were uprooted politically and culturally, excluded from the very history they were supposed to lead.

Conway's personal "purgation" of the colonial drama is perhaps the most significant achievement of the novel. By "derailing" himself from the colonial track through his wartime experiences and his observation of the "ugly face" of British abandonment, Conway manages to transcend the dualism of his upbringing. His realization that the British were the architects of a "fragmented aftermath" allows him to move toward a state of empathy. The chess matches with his father remain the definitive metaphor for this failure: the "white pieces" of imperial service, despite their sophistication and perceived righteousness, committed a series of strategic blunders that made the victory of the "black pieces" of nationalism inevitable. Ultimately, *The Birds of Paradise* suggests that the "psychological scars" of colonialism affect both the occupier and the occupied. Conway's struggle for identity in the English metropole—where he felt like a "misfit" without the "Other" to define him—highlights the parasitic nature of colonial masculinity. Without a subordinate to command, the "heroic" identity of the colonial master collapses into a state of anxiety and lack. Scott's narrative provides a blueprint for understanding the shift from an ego-centric imperial mind to an eco-centric recognition of a shared, albeit painful, human reality.

In the end, Conway finds a sense of peace not by reclaiming his lost "paradise" of childhood, but by acknowledging that it was never a paradise at all, but a gilded cage. The "spiritual equilibrium" sought in eco-psychology is found when Conway finally sees India face-to-face, stripped of the "romanticized" haze of his father's letters. He recognizes that the British presence was a "temporary exile" for the officers and a "harsh reality" for the natives. By accepting the "bitter reality" of the Raj's end and the suffering of those like Krishi, Conway achieves a level of psychological restoration that was denied to his father's generation. The novel concludes as a testament to the resilience of the human spirit when it is forced to navigate the collapse of its world,

suggesting that true healing begins only when the illusions of power are discarded in favor of an authentic connection with the world as it is.

REFERENCE

- [1] Bandura, Albert. *Social Learning Theory*. Prentice Hall, 1977.
- [2] Gesell, Arnold, and Frances L. Ilg. *Infant and Child in the Culture of Today: The Guidance of Development in Home and Nursery School*. Harper & Brothers, 1943.
- [3] Lacan, Jacques. *Écrits: A Selection*. Translated by Alan Sheridan, Tavistock Publications, 1977.
- [4] Locke, John. *Some Thoughts Concerning Education*. 1693. Edited by Ruth W. Grant and Nathan Tarcov, Hackett Publishing, 1996.
- [5] McLeod, John. *Beginning Postcolonialism*. 2nd ed., Manchester UP, 2007.
- [6] Pavlov, Ivan P. *Lectures on Conditioned Reflexes: Twenty-five Years of Objective Study of the Higher Nervous Activity (Behaviour) of Animals*. Translated by W. Horsley Gantt, International Publishers, 1928.
- [7] Rousseau, Jean-Jacques. *Emile, or On Education*. 1762. Translated by Allan Bloom, Basic Books, 1979.
- [8] Scott, Paul. *The Birds of Paradise*. 1962. Williams Morrow & Co., 1986.
- [9] ---. *Staying On*. Heinemann, 1977.
- [10] Swinden, Patrick. *Paul Scott: Images of India*. Macmillan, 1980.
- [11] Trevor, John. *The Last Days of the Raj*. Oxford UP, 2006.
- [12] Vygotsky, Lev S. "The Problem of the Cultural Development of the Child." *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, vol. 36, no. 3, 1929, pp. 415-34.