French être en train de (être, lit. ‘be in the midst of’), generally considered to be the French progressive, has a reading in which the speaker expresses a negative attitude toward the described event. However, not all readings have this expressive meaning. Curiously, the “neutral” reading is not always felicitous. We consider and reject possible analyses in which the expressive meaning arises due to Gricean inference or due to there being two lexical entries for être. We propose that, like ordinary progressives (Portner, 1998), être has a modal at-issue meaning with a circumstantial modal base and a stereotypical ordering source. In addition, we argue, it has a modal conventional implicature with either a stereotypical or a bouletic ordering source. In this way we account for the behavior of être, and raise certain questions as to how conventional implicatures might be related to grammaticalization of aspect.

1. Introduction

The French simple present has both a generic/habitual reading and an ongoing reading. Hence, a sentence like (1) is ambiguous between a reading where that person normally or habitually eats bread and a reading where he is eating bread at present.

(1) Il mange du pain.
   he eats PART bread
   a. ‘He eats bread.’  [generic/habitual]
   b. ‘He is eating bread.’  [ongoing]

French also has another construction that expresses ongoing meaning, namely être en train de (henceforth, être), lit. ‘be in the midst of’. This construction is traditionally referred to as the French progressive.

(2) Il est en train de manger du pain.
   he is in midst of eat.INF PART bread

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‘He is eating bread.’

So, like many languages, French has two ways to express ongoing meaning, via the simple present and the progressive form. However, as has been noted (Franckel 1989, Lachaux 2005, Martin, 2006, Do-Hurinville 2007, Patard & De Wit, 2011), French êetd differs from “ordinary” progressives (for instance, English be -ing or Spanish estar -ndo) in two notable ways. First of all, French êetd cannot express ongoing meaning in certain contexts where “ordinary” progressives are fine: compare (3)-(4), in English and Spanish respectively, with (5). In this context, the ongoing nature of the falling of the rain can only be expressed by the simple present in French.

(3) It’s raining.

(4) Está lloviendo.
estar.PRES.3S raining
‘It’s raining.’

(5) a. # Il est en train de pleuvoir.
it is in midst of rain.INF
‘It’s raining.’
b. Il pleut.
it rains

Second, some instances of êetd seem to be associated with an additional expressive meaning, compared to the simple present: êetd sentences very often seem to convey information about the speaker’s attitude toward the ongoing event. For instance, the question in (6) is associated with the expressive glossed as ‘the hell’ in English, and seems to imply that the person is doing something that (s)he shouldn’t be doing. A similar meaning of disapproval is found in examples (7) and (8).

(6) a. Qu’est-ce que tu fais?
what.is-it that you do
‘What are you doing?’ / ‘What do you do?’
b. Qu’est-ce que tu es en train de faire?
what.is-it that you are in midst of do.INF
‘What (the hell) are you doing?’

(7) a. Nous savons tous ce qui se passe en Crimée.
we know all that which REFLECTED goes.on in Crimea
‘We all know what’s going on in Crimea.’ / ‘We all know what goes on in Crimea.’
b. Nous savons tous ce qui est en train de se passer en Crimée.
   we know all that which is in midst of REFL go.on.INF in Crimea
   ‘We all know what’s going on in Crimea (and I disapprove).’

(8) a. Il prend un bonbon.
   he takes a candy
   ‘He is taking a piece of candy.’ / ‘He takes a piece of candy.’

b. Il est en train de prendre un bonbon.
   he is in midst of take.INF a candy
   ‘He is taking a piece of candy (and he shouldn’t be).’

And, in fact, while we said that the êetd construction is normally not possible with the verb rain (pleuvoir) as in (5a), it becomes possible with an expressive meaning conveying, e.g. in (9) that we don’t want rain on our picnic:

(9) Il est en train de pleuvoir sur notre pique-nique.
   it is in midst of rain.INF on our picnic
   ‘It is raining on our picnic (and the picnic is ruined).’

Yet the expressive meaning does not always arise with êetd sentences, particularly when êetd is used to disambiguate between an ongoing and a habitual reading (10-11):

(10) Quand je rêve de moi, je cours. Je veux dire, je suis en train de courir.
   when I dream of me, I run I want say.INF I am in midst de courir.
   P run.INF
   ‘When I dream of myself, I {run/am running}. I mean, I am running.’

(11) Chaque enfant est en train de décorer son sapin de Noël.
   each child is in midst of decorate.INF his tree of Christmas
   ‘Each child is decorating their own Christmas tree.’ (and they are not done yet)

This article addresses the various readings associated with French ëtre en train de. The issues to be explained are: (i) the content of the additional expressive meaning, (ii) the reason why the expressive meaning seems to not always arise, and (iii) the reason why the “neutral” reading, i.e., the
reading without the expressive meaning, is not always felicitous (as shown 
in (5a)).

We consider and reject two analyses: one in which the additional 
meaning is derived via Gricean implicature, and another in which êetd is 
ambiguous between one lexical entry that has a conventional implicature to 
convey the expressive meaning, and another lexical entry that lacks it. We 
propose instead that êetd always has a conventional implicature. Following 
Portner’s (1998) analysis of the English progressive, we treat the at-issue 
(ongoing) meaning of êetd as involving a modal with a stereotypical 
ordering source. We also treat the conventional implicature as involving a 
modal, but unlike the modal in the at-issue meaning, the modal in the 
conventional implicature can have a bouletic as well as a stereotypical 
ordering source. We derive the taxonomy of readings of êetd according to 
the ordering source of the conventional implicature and the interaction of 
the conventional implicature with the at-issue meaning.

2. A conventional rather than a conversational implicature

One possible analysis of the contrast between êetd and the simple present is 
that of a Gricean implicature from the fact that the speaker chose the 
progressive over the simple present, to the conclusion that the speaker must 
be insisting on the ongoingness for some reason, namely that they 
disapprove. We see two issues with such an analysis.

First of all, a conversational implicature is cancellable. However, the 
expressive meaning associated with êetd, when it is present, is not 
cancellable. Any lexical material that indicates that the speaker has a 
positive attitude toward the proposition effectively contradicts the 
expressive meaning. If the expressive meaning is cancellable, adding such 
lexical material should be possible. However, we see in (12) and (13) that 
with material signaling a positive attitude toward the proposition, the only 
reading available is a negative one (ironic or suspicious); the speaker does 
not really have a positive attitude (contrary to (13a)):

(12) Qu’est-ce que tu es en train de nous faire pour le 
    what.is-it that you are in midst of us do.INF for the 
    diner? -#On va se régaler! 
    dinner we go REFLEX enjoy 
    ‘What are you cooking for dinner? - #We are going to love 
    it!’ [only negative]

(13) a. Qu’est-ce que tu fais de beau ? 
    what-is-it that you do P nice 
    ‘What are you doing that’s nice?’

b. #Qu’est-ce que t’es en train de faire de beau ?
DERIVING THE READINGS OF FRENCH *ETRE EN TRAIN DE*

what-is-it that you-are in midst of do.INF P nice
‘What are you doing that’s nice?’ [only negative]

This fact indicates that the expressive meaning is not cancellable, therefore it is not contributed by a conversational implicature.

Secondly, if the expressive meaning of *être* really were contributed by a Gricean conversational implicature, we would expect such an implicature to arise quite generally in languages that have both a simple present and a progressive. But when we compare French and, e.g., Italian, it appears that for at least some speakers of Italian, the ongoing reading of (14a) and the only reading of (14b) are very similar if not identical in meaning:

(14) a. Cosa fai?
    what do.2S
    ‘What are you doing?’ / ‘What do you do?’
b. Cosa stai facendo?
    what stand.2S do-PPL
    ‘What are you doing?’

And, moreover, in contrast to French, the use of (15b) does not require the speaker to have a negative stance toward what the interlocutor is doing; (15a) and (15b) are equivalent:

(15) a. Cosa fai di bello ?
    what do P nice
    ‘What are you doing that’s nice?’
b. Cosa stai facendo di bello ?
    what stand do-PPL P nice
    ‘What are you doing that’s nice?’

The *stare -ndo* construction in Italian thus does not contribute a negative expressive meaning. Such an expressive meaning seems, therefore, to be particular to the French *être* construction rather than a general Gricean conversational implicature provoked by the hearer’s knowledge that the speaker could have chosen the simple present but didn’t.

Rather than a conversational implicature, it seems we are dealing with a conventional implicature. We take our sense of what a conventional implicature is from Potts 2005, who is building on Grice, 1975. Conventional implicatures (henceforth “CIs”) are part of the conventional meanings of words, they are independent of the at-issue meaning, and they are non-cancellable speaker commitments. The expressive meaning associated with *être* fulfills all these conditions: it is associated with a particular phrase (namely, *être*), it is independent of the at-issue meaning
(e.g., the expressive meaning is not what’s being questioned in (5b)); and as we have just shown, it is not cancellable.

3. A first conventional implicature proposal for \( \text{\textit{etd}} \)

Taking on board the idea that a CI is the source of the expressive meaning associated with \( \text{\textit{etd}} \), a first proposal might be that \( \text{\textit{etd}} \) is simply ambiguous between the expressive and “neutral” readings: one reading that has the CI and one reading that lacks it. The content of the expressive meaning is that the propositional complement of \( \text{\textit{etd}} \) is bad according to the speaker.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{(16)} & \quad \text{a. } \text{\textit{etd}}_{\text{neutral}} \quad \text{at-issue meaning: p is ongoing} \\
& \quad \text{b. } \text{\textit{etd}}_{\text{expressive}} \quad \text{at-issue meaning: p is ongoing;}
& \quad \text{CI: p is bad}
\end{align*}
\]

This hypothesis treats the at-issue meaning of expressive \( \text{\textit{etd}} \) the same as the ongoing reading of the simple present, and correctly so; to see why, consider the question (17) and the responses in (18). A question with \( \text{\textit{etd}} \) can be felicitously answered using the simple present, as shown in (18a). In fact, as demonstrated in (18b), it must be answered using the simple present.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{(17)} & \quad \text{Qu’est-ce que tu es en train de faire ?} \\
& \quad \text{\textit{WHAT (the hell) are you doing?}}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{(18)} & \quad \text{a. } \text{Bah, je joue.} \\
& \quad \text{uh I play} \\
& \quad \text{‘Uh, I’m playing.’} \\
& \quad \text{b. } \text{#Bah, je suis en train de jouer.} \\
& \quad \text{uh I am in midst of play.\text{INF}} \\
& \quad \text{‘Uh, I’m playing.’}
\end{align*}
\]

The fact that using \( \text{\textit{etd}} \) is odd in response to an \( \text{\textit{etd}} \) question also provides further support for our claim that there is a CI involved with \( \text{\textit{etd}} \), in that it is odd for the speaker of (18b) to add their own CI in answer to the question.

The hypothesis in (16) is thus \textit{prima facie} plausible. However, it faces several problems related to ambiguity and the content of the CI. The first two problems concern the idea that \( \text{\textit{etd}} \) is lexically ambiguous. First, the reason for the proposed ambiguity is left unexplained. Assuming the existence of two lexical entries (whether accidentally homophonous or diachronically related) does not shed any particular light on why \( \text{\textit{etd}} \) should be ambiguous in this way. The second problem with the lexical ambiguity view is that the neutral reading of \( \text{\textit{etd}} \) is predicted to always be possible. The infelicity of e.g. (5a) is completely unexpected if \( \text{\textit{etd}}_{\text{neutral}} \) is available, since there is no particular reason to assume that \( \text{\textit{etd}}_{\text{neutral}} \) should have a
restricted distribution. So, the hypothesis in (16) presents two lexical items but does not explain their distribution.

The third issue regarding the hypothesis in (16) involves the content of the proposed CI of \( \hat{\text{etd}}_{\text{expressive}} \). It is not always the case that the expressive meaning conveys that the speaker considers \( p \) to be bad. Cases such as (19) and (20) below illustrate this point.

(19) Le général était en train de s’habiller.
    the general was in midst of REFL-dress.\text{INF}
    ‘The general was getting dressed.’
    \( \Rightarrow \) the general wasn’t “visible”

(20) Je suis en train de me brosser les dents.
    I am in midst of REFL brush.\text{INF} the teeth
    ‘I am brushing my teeth.’ (context: the phone rings)
    \( \Rightarrow \) I cannot pick up the phone

These cases make it clear that the speaker need not disapprove of \( p \): (19) and (20) can be felicitously uttered even if, according to the speaker, it’s not bad that the general is getting dressed, or that the speaker is brushing their teeth. These are, in fact, quite normal things to do. Rather, the intuition in these cases seems to be that some other proposition \( q \) is desired (the speaker seeing the general, the speaker picking up the phone), but it so happens that \( q \) is incompatible with \( p \). Such a characterization would also account for the cases where \( p \) seems to be \( \sim q \), as in examples (6) - (9). This intuition will give us one of the tools we will need to understand the apparent variation in the contribution of the CI.

4. Proposal

With these cases in mind, we propose to understand the CI of \( \hat{\text{etd}} \) as making reference to an additional proposition \( q \). We will use modal semantics, and the relationship between \( p \) (the propositional argument of the at-issue meaning) and \( q \) (the propositional argument of the CI) to account for the various readings of \( \hat{\text{etd}} \), including the neutral reading.

We argued above on the basis of the question-answer pair in (17) and (18a) that the at-issue meaning of \( \hat{\text{etd}} \) is the same as the ongoing reading of the simple present. We base our analysis of the at-issue meaning on Portner’s (1998) modal proposal for the English progressive. We first assume a variable \( c \) that collects contextual variables as in (21), including variables representing the speaker’s conversational backgrounds in \( s_c \), the situation of utterance.

(21) \( c=\{x_c, s_c, f_c, g_c, b_c\} \)
The at-issue denotation of êetd is as in (22), following Portner (1998). The idea is that all the stereotypically-best circumstantially accessible worlds—those that most agree with stereotypical or lawlike behavior—are such that they contain a situation s’ such that p is true on s’ and s’ is a supersituation of the topic situation s.

\[
(22) \, [[\, êetd \, ]]^x = \lambda p \lambda s . \forall w \in \text{Best}(f_c, g_c) : \\
\exists s' \subset w \text{ and } s \text{ is a non-final part of } s' : [p(s')]
\]

As for the CI, we know that the expressive meaning has something to do with the desire of the speaker. Adapting Heim’s (1992) analysis of want, we treat the speaker’s desire-worlds as being those which are, according to the speaker, accessible from the circumstances of the speech situation and most preferable. Thus, we use the speaker’s circumstantial conversational background to form a modal base consisting of the accessible worlds, and we use the speaker’s desires to form a “bouletic” (desire) ordering source, which picks out the accessible worlds that most satisfy the speaker’s preferences. Using the same aspectual semantics as in (22), we get (23) as the bouletic CI:

\[
(23) \, \text{CI of } [[\, êetd \, ]]^c (\text{bouletic ordering source}) = \\
\lambda q \lambda s . \forall w \in \text{Best}(f_c, b_c) : \exists s' \subset w \text{ and } s \text{ is a non-final part of } s' : [q(s')]
\]

We retain the aspectual semantics of the at-issue meaning because in the CI the desired event would be begun or in progress at the speech situation and, if telic, would reach its conclusion after the speech situation. Note that the CI in (23) has its own proposition q; this is meant to be distinct from the proposition p in the at-issue meaning in (22).

So we have the at-issue modal, in (22), with a circumstantial modal base and a stereotypical ordering source, and the modal CI, in (23), with a circumstantial modal base and a bouletic ordering source. Now, we know that if a modal has a circumstantial modal base, one and the same modal can often have either a bouletic or a stereotypical ordering source.

\[
(24) \, \text{I think that I will go to Harvard Square tomorrow…} \\
a. \quad \ldots \text{I’ve been meaning to get some shopping done.} \\
\quad \text{[bouletic]}
\]
b. . .that’s just the kind of thing I might do.

Copley, 2002

We’re not suggesting that the at-issue meaning of êetd has another reading with a bouletic ordering source. However, we would like to suggest that its modal CI has both possibilities for its ordering source. So, in addition to (23) being a possible CI for ëetd, we claim that the denotation in (25) is also available as a CI for ëetd:

\[(25) \text{CI of } [[êetd ]]^r \text{ (stereotypical ordering source)} = \lambda q \lambda s . \forall w \in \text{Best}(f_c, g_c) : \exists s' \subset w \text{ and } s \text{ is a non-final part of } s' : [q(s')]\]

Using these CIs, we now explain how they account for the various readings of ëetd. We propose that ëetd ALWAYS has a CI, including in the neutral case. In expressive readings, the CI has a bouletic ordering source; this is clear enough from the cases in (6) - (9) and (19) and (20). Neutral cases should obviously not have a bouletic ordering source in the CI; we will argue that they have the CI with the stereotypical ordering source.

The choice of ordering source, however, is not the only difference between the expressive reading we have seen so far and the neutral reading we have seen so far: while the former requires that p be incompatible with q, the latter have no such requirement. Compare, for instance, (6)-(9) and (10)-(11). This raises the possibility of a taxonomy of readings based on two factors: the choice of ordering source in the CI, and the relationship between p (the proposition expressed by the complement of ëetd and involved in the at-issue meaning) and q (the proposition introduced by the CI). The logical possibilities in such a taxonomy are as follows:

(26) a. bouletic ordering source in the CI (expressive reading)
   (i) p ≠ q
   (ii) p = q
b. stereotypical ordering source in the CI (neutral reading)
   (i) p = q
   (ii) p ≠ q

Note that only the choice of ordering source, strictly speaking, involves different readings per se; the relation between p and q is not represented in the semantics, so is strictly a matter of vagueness. We will nonetheless continue to call the four different possibilities “readings” for ease of discussion. Let us consider the four cases in turn.

5. A taxonomy of ëetd readings

5.1 Expressive readings: bouletic ordering source
5.1.1 Discordant reading: bouletic ordering source, \( p \neq q \)

The expressive readings we have seen so far, in (6)-(9), (19), and (20), fall into this category. Consider for instance (8b), repeated here as (27):

\[
(27) \quad \text{Il est en train de prendre un bonbon.} = (8b)
\]

\begin{align*}
&\text{he is in midst of take.INF a candy.} \\
&\text{‘He is taking a piece of candy (and he shouldn’t be).’}
\end{align*}

\[
(q = \neg p)
\]

The at-issue meaning, according to (22), is that the current situation \( s \) is such that there is a supersituation \( s’ \) of \( s \), \( s \) a non-final interval of \( s’ \), such that on all circumstantially accessible worlds compatible with the speaker’s stereotypical knowledge, \( \textit{he take a candy} \) is true of \( s’ \). The CI has a bouletic ordering source as in (23): the current situation \( s \) is such that there is a supersituation \( s’ \) of \( s \), \( s \) a non-final interval of \( s’ \), such that on all circumstantially accessible worlds compatible with the speaker’s desires, a proposition \( q \) is true of \( s’ \). What the speaker judges is that \( p \) is in the midst of happening, but the speaker would prefer that \( q \) be in the midst of happening. In this particular case, \( q \) could be \( \neg p \).

However, as we have seen above in the cases of (19) and (20), \( q \) doesn’t have to be \( \neg p \). It could simply be incompatible with \( p \), as in (20), repeated here as (28):

\[
(28) \quad \text{Je suis en train de me brosser les dents.} = (20)
\]

\begin{align*}
&\text{I am in midst of REFL brush.INF the.PL teeth} \\
&\text{‘I’m brushing my teeth (so I can’t answer the phone).’}
\end{align*}

\[
(p \cap q = 0)
\]

And in fact, the requirement can be weakened further still: \( p \) need not even be incompatible with \( q \). This can be seen from the fact that in (29), \( q \) is something like “the children are safe”. In a subset of \( q \) worlds \( p \) holds, because some of the worlds in which the children are safe are worlds in which the children cross the street (safely).

\[
(29) \quad \text{Les enfants sont en train de traverser la rue.} \\
&\text{the.PL children are in midst of cross.INF the street} \\
&\text{‘The children are crossing the street (there is imminent danger).’}
\]

\[
(p \subset q)
\]

5.1.2 Accordant reading: bouletic ordering source, \( p = q \)

It is also possible to have \( p \) be equal to \( q \); this we will call the “accordant” reading. The bouletic CI in (30) conveys that the speaker wants to be speaking.
(30) a. Je parle.  
I talk  
‘I’m talking.’

b. Je suis en train de parler.  
I am in midst of talk.INF  
‘I’m talking (and I’m asking you not to interrupt me).’  
(p = q)

Likewise, in (31), the speaker wants the interlocutor’s sister to be sleeping.

(31) a. Ta soeur dort.  
your sister sleeps  
‘Your sister is sleeping’.

b. Ta soeur est en train de dormir.  
your sister is in midst of sleep.INF  
‘Your sister is sleeping (and I want her to keep sleeping, be quiet).’  
(p = q)

In sum, it does not really matter what the relation between p and q is; an expressive reading can be obtained even when p=q, as long as there is a bouletic ordering source.

5.2 Neutral readings: stereotypical ordering source

As we have said above, we propose that ëetd always has a CI; in that sense, every reading of ëetd is “expressive”. However, the neutral readings don’t have an expressive flavor because the meaning of the CI is not bouletic. We consider first the case where p = q and subsequently, the case where p ≠ q.

5.2.1 Disambiguating reading: stereotypical ordering source, p = q

If the CI’s ordering source is stereotypical and p = q, that means that CI has exactly the same denotation as the at-issue meaning. We propose that this is exactly how to solve the problem of the fact that it is odd to say (5a) out of the blue, repeated here as (32a), unless there is either an expressive meaning as in (32b) (= (9)) or the speaker is disambiguating as in (33b):

(32) a. #Il est en train de pleuvoir.  
it is in midst of rain.INF  
‘It’s raining.’

b. Il est en train de pleuvoir sur notre pique-nique.  
it is in midst of rain.INF on our picnic  
‘It is raining on our picnic (and the picnic is ruined).’

c. Il doit être en train de pleuvoir.
Since the simple present has the ongoing meaning without the extra CI, it would normally be used unless there is some reason to use êetd. If êetd is used, the reason it is used instead of the simple present is due to the CI of êetd, which is necessarily present. If the CI has a bouletic ordering source, an expressive meaning arises as in (32b), while if it has a stereotypical ordering source, it can be used to disambiguate as in (32c), where the simple present would be ambiguous—but not in an out-of-the blue context such as (32a), because there the simple present can be used unambiguously. The same holds for the cases in (10) and (11), repeated below as (33) and (34):

(33) Quand je rêve de moi, je cours. Je veux dire, je suis en train de courir. (=(10))
    P run.INF
    ‘When I dream of myself, I {run/am running}. I mean, I am running.’ (p = q)

(34) Chaque enfant est en train de décorer son sapin. (= (11))
    each child is in midst of decorate.INF his tree
    ‘Each child is decorating their own Christmas tree.’ (p = q)

5.2.2 Interpretive reading: stereotypical ordering source, p ≠ q

We also predict that another neutral reading exists, namely one in which there is a stereotypical ordering source for the CI but p and q are not equal. This agrees very well with a reading that has been noted in previous literature on êetd as well as other progressives (though in the latter we would not expect q to be “hard-coded” into the semantics as we propose for êetd), namely the “interpretive” reading. The “interpretive” reading (Buysse 1968, König 1980, Kearns 2003, Martin 2006, e.g.), as in (35), has been noted as presenting an alternative way of (re)describing a particular eventuality. As shown in (36), when an overt description of the event (Mary left, e.g.) is given first, it has a different relationship to the following progressive sentence when the progressive sentence is understood as interpretive (36c), compared to when it is not (36d).

(35) You are making a mistake.
    = ‘In doing what you are currently doing, you are making a mistake.’
(36)  

a. Mary left, making a mistake.
b. Mary left, smoking a cigarette.
c. By leaving, Mary is making a mistake.
d. #By leaving, Mary is smoking a cigarette.

Consider the sentences in (37). In our proposal, the propositional argument p of the at-issue meaning of the second sentence, is the alternative description of the event described by the first sentence. We propose that q, the propositional argument of the CI contributed by être en train de, is Pierre leave the meeting. The CI of the second sentence thus echoes the description of the event given in the first sentence. The être en train de sentence then conveys that something is going on—namely, that Pierre is making a mistake—while effectively presupposing that something else is going on—namely, that Pierre is leaving. Note that the simple present does not get an interpretive reading, as shown in (37b); it can only have an ongoing reading if it does not have an interpretive reading, as shown in (37c).

(37)  

a. Pierre quitte la réunion. Il est en train de faire Pierre leaves the meeting he is in midst of make.INF
a mistake
‘Pierre is leaving the meeting. He is making a mistake.’ (p ≠ q)
b. #Pierre quitte la réunion. Il fait une erreur. Pierre   leaves the meeting he makes a mistake
‘Pierre is leaving the meeting. He is making a mistake.’
c. Pierre quitte la réunion. Il fume une cigarette. Pierre leaves the meeting he smokes a cigarette
‘Pierre is leaving the meeting. He is smoking a cigarette.’

The interpretive reading in (37) could be explained by using the bouletic ordering source option for the CI of être en train de, since the speaker presumably has a negative attitude toward Pierre’s mistake (=she wants Pierre to be doing something else). However, it is possible to use positive-attitude lexical material, as we did above in example (13), to test whether the negative attitude is part of the meaning of the interpretive reading. If we do this, we see that it is possible to have an interpretive reading with a non-ironic meaning, as in (38).

(38)  

En faisant cette tournée, je suis en train de me rendre in doing this tour I am in midst of REFL render favor
service moi-même. favor myself
In doing this tour, I am doing myself a favor.’

This indicates that it is possible for CI not to have a bouletic ordering source, but rather a stereotypical ordering source, in a case where p is not the same as q.

The speaker’s stereotypical ordering source gives a sense of how the speaker thinks the course of events will proceed from the current situation. Since a single person in a single situation can’t believe simultaneously that incompatible courses of events will happen, p and q are not allowed to be incompatible. (Note that this means that the possible relation between p and q is more restricted than with a bouletic ordering source.) However, p and q can still be non-identical.

6. Conclusion

In conclusion: we have proposed that there is only one êetd. The at-issue meaning of êetd, we have argued, is just an ongoing meaning, the same as the ongoing reading of the simple present. It has a modal conventional implicature with either a bouletic or a stereotypical ordering source. The following taxonomy of readings of êetd results:

\[(39) \text{Taxonomy of readings of } êetd:\]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>a. bouletic ordering source in the CI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(i) (p \neq q): ‘discordant’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ii) (p = q): ‘accordant’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>b. stereotypical ordering source in the CI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(i) (p = q): ‘disambiguating’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ii) (p \neq q): ‘interpretive’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We propose that the CI is always there, but that when it has a stereotypical ordering source, it is not “expressive” in Potts’ (2005) sense (good/bad). This makes it look as though the CI disappears. However, we know it is still there because êetd is not always felicitous in describing out-of-the-blue ongoing situations (e.g., example (5a), #Il est en train de pleuvoir, ‘it is raining’). We propose that this is because êetd has the exact same at-issue meaning as the ongoing reading of the simple present. The simple present should be preferred unless the CI is needed to disambiguate (stereotypical ordering source, \(p = q\)) or to convey that there is another description of an already-described event (stereotypical ordering source, \(p \neq q\)).

This proposal raises a couple of intriguing questions as to the nature of CIs and of grammaticalization. If, as we have argued, êetd has a CI, it is an odd one according to Potts’ (2005) theory, because (i) CI meaning is supposed to take at-issue meaning as an argument, and our CI does not, and (ii) any word is supposed to express either at-issue or CI meaning but not both; our êetd does both. The issue in (i) could be resolved by positing a
two-dimensional Predicate Modification (see also Morzycki 2009). However, (ii) can’t be resolved unless there are two heads involved in êetd. But since êetd isn’t grammaticalized as a progressive, it may well be that it is comprised of two meaningful heads; likely être ‘be.INF’ would carry the at-issue aspectual meaning, as French verbs generally do, while (en) train (de) would carry the CI. Given this idea, we wonder whether there might not be a correlation, among aspectual morphology, between lack of grammaticalization and the presence of a CI. That is, we wonder whether there are other non-grammaticalized aspects that carry both at-issue meaning and CIs, and conversely, whether there are any grammaticalized aspects that do the same.

References


Potts, Chris. 2005. The Logic of Conventional Implicatures. OUP.