

CHAPTER ONE

1.1 General Background

Language is a universal medium and/or a means of human communication by means of which we express our complex thoughts, feelings, desires, emotions, etc. in our daily lives. It is thus a highly versatile code to communicate each other. Language, being a dynamic and open system which makes human communication feasible, is also a social phenomenon. It is highly used in our society to establish manly relationship amongst the people. As has been mentioned, language is one of the unique possessions of human race, and distinctive properties of mankind because of which human beings seem to be an extraordinary and superior to all the species on this earth in every respect. Hence, the place of language in human communication is immensely important so that it can be compared as an essential tool for us to convey our message (s) in the absence of which human's communication remains impossible.

There are many languages being spoken or used in the world. Among them, no language itself can be a superior or inferior to other languages in terms of communicative values. Nevertheless, some languages play a significant role in certain situation. English is one of the languages which is used in international arena. It is one of the UNO's languages. It has gained its prestige as *lingua franca* that has made international communication possible and easy. English language has a key role in international context because wide range of knowledge regarding science, technology and valuable others is with this language. Nearly, half of the world's textbooks are in English. It is the richest language in relation to vocabulary. Due to the rapid acceleration of industrial development, international trade, mass media, commerce, transport, etc., the significance of English language in these days is being increased. So, a sound knowledge of the English language is necessary to live a civilized life at this moment.

Nepal is an active member of several international organizations like UNO, SAARC, ILO, etc. It is very necessary to foster the international diplomacy, tourist industry, academic system in our context. Nepal is obliged to follow English medium education system to highlight its standard and to compete with outsiders. Most of the prescribed and reference books, in Nepal, are available in English medium. People of Nepal have a keen interest in developing an excellent English speaking and writing power. English subject in Nepal is compulsory from primary level to bachelor's level nowadays. Thus, the importance of English in Nepal is cardinal. People need to use language observing the context and demand of the people. Problem will be there in language use if the people are bilingual and multilingual rather than only monolingual. Due to the growing effects of English language in every walk of our life, people are compelled to use it directly or indirectly, knowingly or unknowingly. Sometimes they speak pure English language not at a time (switch over Nepali) but many times they only mix English words and expressions when they speak Nepali language publicly. Linguistically, the first process is called 'code-switching' and the second one is called 'code-mixing'. The second process especially is one of the notable features of present bilingual and multilingual society.

1.1.1 Code-Mixing

"A particular dialect or language one chooses to use on any occasion is a code, a system used for communication between two or more parties" (Wardhaugh, R, 1986: 99). So, a code is a system of communication in a nutshell. Now, what is code-mixing then?

When a speaker of a particular language uses the structure of one language and some lexical items or elements of another language, there remains the case of code-mixing. Hence, the shift from one language to another language in the middle of the sentence (lexion shift) can be taken as code mixing. It is a usual

phenomenon in bilingual and multilingual society. Some of the definitions of code-mixing given by different scholars are as follows:

"It is a change not entirely from one language to another but only the elements of one code are mixed into the another." (Wardhaugh, 1986: 103)

"It is a change from one language's lexicon to the next because of the meet between fluent bilinguals." (Hudson, 1980: 53)

For examples,

Timro notebook kosanga chha?

Ma office batai campus aunchhu.

Shirt ko pocket ma paisa rakheko chhu.

Tyo cheese, I mean, expensive hunuparchha

"Code-mixing involves the transfer to linguistic elements from one language into another: a sentence begins in one language, then makes use of words or grammatical features belonging to another. Such mixed forms of language are often labelled with a hybrid name, such as (in Spanish and Twain) Spanglish, Franglais and Singlish (Singaporean English), and attract attitudes ranging from enthusiastic community support (as an expression of local identity) to outright condemnation (from some speakers of the related standard languages)." (Crystal, D, 2000:61)

Finally, it can be said that code-mixing is a *linguistic cocktail*. It is a lexicon shift from one language to another. It can be occurred at any mode of situation and topic. Mixing of a code can especially be seen in the case of nouns. Code mixing is found in every walk of human life in relation to language use so, it is a trend from the viewpoint of sociolinguistics.

1.1.2 Code-Switching

If the shift from one code to another is absolute, then it is called code-switching. Code-switching may be intralinguistic or interlinguistic.

"The code-switching can take place between or even within sentences in speaking and writing. Certain topics are handled better or more appropriately in one language than in another in particular bilingual context. Switching from one code to another is not a matter of free individual choice. It is affected by topical and situational features, which determines the speaker's choice from among and set of available codes." (Krishnaswamy et al, 1992: 46)

For instance:

Ma thorai khanchhu: I'm feeling uneasy

I'm very sorry: *Maile timro kitab bhulechhu*

Similarly, Crystal, D (2000:61) states that the linguistic behaviour referred to as code-switching (sometimes code-shifting or, within a language, style-shifting), for example, can be illustrated by the switch BILINGUAL or BIDIALECTAL, speakers may make (depending on who they are talking to, or where they are) between STANDARD and regional forms of English, between Welsh and English in parts of Wales, or between occupational and domestic varieties; absolutely in the same conversation.

"While choice of language may be determined by the situation, in the way just outlined, code-switching from one language to another can also be used to create situations, to establish status relations, and to express attitudes. Spanish-English code-switching among Chicanos provides us with an example of this phenomenon. In public life in the United States, English is the official language, and Chicano Spanish, being considered nonstandard relative both to English and to Standard Spanish, is publicly felt to have low status. As in the case of BEV, Chicano Spanish is not just one variety but a cluster of varieties. Some of its features reflect earlier stages of Spanish. Others show many innovations,

especially in slang, something influenced by English. The deep Chicano slang, originally associated with street gangs in Arizona, but now gaining prestige as a vehicle of the Chicano movement, is called "calo." In many families the elder generation, made up of immigrants from Mexico, speak no English. Their children are for the most part bilingual, but with Spanish as their dominant language. The third generation may have learned through the school system and TV to be embarrassed by their Spanish and therefore to use it only at home and to older people who know no English. On the other hand, many third-generation Chicanos are today learning Spanish and using it more and more as a signal of pride in their ethnic identity. In such a context, choice of language has a great deal to do with choice of attitude, as well as with situational factors. Among Chicanos who favor Spanish, one often observes extremely rapid-fire shifts between Spanish and English, often in mid-sentence. This kind of code-switching cannot be explained in terms of situational factors, since these remain constant. But this switching can be shown to correlate very largely with attitude— Spanish is used for evaluation and expressiveness, English for statement and new information. Various studies have shown, for example, that the parts of sentences most likely to be in Spanish, if Spanish is personally highly valued, are the following.

1. Personal names and place names, if associated with Chicano people; thus **Juan** will not usually be switched to **John**, though there may be some flexibility here; terms of endearment, such as **mija** "daughter," and **papa**, pronounced the Spanish way; the term **chicano** is also nearly always pronounced the Spanish way.
2. Tag questions, the function of which is to engage the speaker's attention and reaction, as in **It's about the same, no?**
3. Connectors between sentences, such as **pero** "but," **pues** "then."
4. Interjections and exclamations like **mira** "look," **andale, pues** "O.K., swell."

5. Evaluative adverbs, as in **Ta bien easy** "it's real easy."

This kind of code-switching has been called "metaphorical code-switching" or "attitudinal code-switching" in contrast with "situational code switching." It is in some ways comparable to the pronoun pairs that establish intimacy versus politeness, and to devices for establishing shared worlds, such as the use of **the** versus **a**. Spanish in these contexts, like the pronoun **tu** or **the**, signals involvement and expectation of involvement on the part of the hearer, confidentiality, and intimacy of in group bonding. English, like the pronoun **vous** and the article **a**, express distance, nonsharing, and lack of bondedness. The kind of phenomenon is obviously not restricted to bilingual situation. It can operate in multilingual ones and in situations that are essentially dialectical one, where switching between more or less standard varieties occurs. It is a well-known feature of political speeches where a switch, for example, from Standard English to a rural regional variety indicates rejection of urban-centered national values and strong ties with local identity." (www.linguisticworld.com)

Thus, code switching is an absolute shift within the same conversation. It is highly conditioned by situation and topic. It is lesser in use vis-à-vis code mixing.

Table No. 1
Differences between Code Switching and Code Mixing

Code Switching	Code Mixing
1. A change from one language to another in the same conversation.	1. The use of elements, most typically nouns and verbs from one language in utterance predominately in another language.
2. Absolute shift; e.g. Ma birami chhu so I do not go to campus.	2. Lexical shift; e.g. Hari good machhe ho, he is dada yahanko.
3. Conditioned by situation and topic.	3. Irrelevant of situation and topic change.

In our context, people use a lot of English words when they speak Nepali language. It is because of the trend and habit of English language use. Now, code-mixing has become an automatic and unavoidable habit whenever there is any public speaking. Most of the educated people and political leaders are aware of English language so that they often show their solidarity if situation favours them. Sometimes, code-mixing is needed to clarify the meaning. It is being a trend among young generation in the urban areas. Code mixing can be realized in every sphere of life whenever and wherever there is public speaking. Public speaking is a speech delivering programme in front of the mass. It is a skill. Different professionals, political leaders, teachers, students and even general people have to participate in public speaking frequently. Therefore, they mix code in their speech. Code-mixing is thereby found elsewhere, though the researcher focuses the research mainly on public speaking covering different groups and sectors to show its relevancy in language teaching and learning finally.

1.1.3 Conditioning Factors for Code Mixing and Switching

What makes a speaker to mix/switch certain code of language(s) is the matter of conditioning factors for code mixing and switching. There are some reasons for code mixing and switching regardless a few words which are automated and assimilated in the case of Nepali language affected from the English one. Wardhaugh, R. (1986) has mentioned the following reasons for code mixing and switching.

1. Solidarity with listeners
2. Choice of topic
3. Perceived social cultural distance
4. Lack of language loyalty
5. Migration
6. Intercaste marriage

Solidarity with the listeners is one of the very good reasons for code switching. Newari people; for example, are competent Nepali Speakers, but soon as one Newar meets another they start talking in Newari.

People also mix or switch their code to suit their topic of discussion or subject matter. It is found in complex ideas to be explained. For example, English language is used to discuss scientific topics by the Nepali speakers.

Speakers switch/mix codes because they think that one variety or code is more prestigious than the other. For example, sometimes Nepali people switch or mix English thinking that English is a prestigious language and to speak English is the sign of being elite.

If one language lacks its loyalty, then the case of code mixing, or switching occurs. Sometimes this be the case that one language needs to adopt certain words from the next language and use them in their own. But we don't have this case very often, as a result of which code-mixing or switching is there.

Due to migration, people have to mix/switch their code over the next language. In a new place, speakers always should behave as other speakers do. Certain dialect, register and local languages play a vital role in this factor.

Intercaste marriage, too, gradually makes speakers to mix code. If A gets married for example, 'B' who is from different linguistic background, then 'A' has high chance of code mixing in speaking.

Except these, speakers mix/switch code in the following situations.

- To clarify meaning
- To imitate others
- To facilitate the mass
- If no Nepali word or expression in process
- Respective context and global understanding.

1.1.4 Word

Words are meaningful units. They may have one or more morphemes. Word, as Richards et al. (1985:311) say, is the smallest of the linguistic units, which can occur on its own in speech or writing. Sharma (2002:51) defines word as a minimal free form that can constitute by itself a complete utterance. In other way, words are the physically definable units which one encounters in stretch of speech or writing (bounded by spaces).

1.1.4.1 The Classification of Word on its Classes

Class generally refers to a set of entities sharing certain formal or semantic properties. In other words, the items that have the same possibility of occurrence in a certain linguistic context belong to the same class. There are two kinds of word classes. They are major word classes and minor word classes. There are four major word classes: Nouns, Verbs, Adjectives and Adverbs. The minor word classes are: Prepositions, Conjunctions, Articles, Numerals, Pronouns, Quantifiers, and Interjections.

1.1.4.1.i. Major Word Classes

Noun

These words are the names of individuals, animals, places, things, qualities etc. so they are the naming words. They can function as the subject or object of a verb. For example, book, house, Patan, Ramesh, coverage, utterance are nouns.

Verb

A verb is a word or phrase that tells what someone or something is, does, or experiences. It shows actions or states. For example, jump, teach, speak, live, be, was. According to Aarts and Aarts (1986:20), "Verbs are typically associated with the sentence function predicator."

Adjective

They are words that describe a noun. It refers to a property or attribute of an entity denoted by a noun. Adjective describes the thing, quality or state that a noun-refers to (Richards et al., 1985:5). Most adjectives can be used attributively as well as predicative (Aarts and Aarts, 1986:29).

For example,

a green door The door is green.

that foolish idea I prefer my tea hot.

Adverb

Adverb is a word that describes the characteristics of a verb. They describe or add to the meaning of a verb, an adjective, another adverb, or a sentence, and which answers such questions as how? Where? or when?

For example

He ran slowly. The plane arrived yesterday

Come tomorrow.

1.1.4.1.ii. Minor Word Class

Preposition

Preposition is a word used with a noun or pronoun to show its connection with another word. In "He walked into the house." and "She succeeded by working hard." 'into' and 'by' are prepositions. Prepositions are of time, place, direction etc. They constitute a closed word class, and are formally invariable. Prepositions may be simple and complex. Example:

Simple

at, in, before, after, up, with

Complex

because of, in front of, in addition to

Conjunction

A conjunction is a word used to join words or sentences. Conjunction doesn't vary in form. These are words such as 'but' or 'and' that connects parts of sentences, phrases, etc. Conjunctions may be simple and complex.

Examples:

Simple

and, if, but, because

Complex

as long as, so that, as soon as, in case

Article

Articles are determiners that are used before nouns. English language has two types of articles, which function exclusively as constituents of the noun phrase. The definite article is spelled -the, the indefinite article is spelled -a (before consonants) or -an (before vowels).

Numeral

Numeral is a word that is used to denote a number. There are cardinal numbers and ordinal numbers in English. The cardinal numbers are one, two, four, hundred etc. and ordinal numbers are first, second, twenty-third, millionth etc.

Pronoun

A pronoun is a word used in place of a noun. Aarts and Aarts (1986:48) say pronouns are usually treated as forming one word class with several subclasses. We distinguish the different subclasses of pronouns, all of which are closed classes, I, yourself, those, which, each other are some examples of pronoun.

Quantifier

These are the words which show the quantity of a noun. There are many quantifiers in English language. According to Aarts and Aarts (1986:58), "Quantifiers constitute a closed word-class. Some one, nobody, enough, some, every are some examples of quantifier."

Interjection

An interjection is a word used as an exclamation. This word class consists of items that have no referring function and are only used to express emotions such as surprise, disgust, joy, pleasure, pain etc.

Example: Ah, damn, wow, auch, hey etc.

Ah, is that how it works?

Damn, I've dropped that glass!

1.1.4.2 Word Formation Process

Word formation is the process of creating new words. Because of this process new words are added day by day in a language. So, it is very helpful in increasing the number of vocabulary. There are various processes of word formation. Some important processes are as follows:

(1) Borrowing

Borrowing is one of the most common sources of new words in every language. It is presumably the most important mechanism by which an idiolect continues to change during adult life (Hockett, 1958:403). It is simply taking over of words from other languages. Hudson (1980:55, 56) states "Borrowing involves mixing the system themselves, because an item is 'borrowed' from one language to become part of the other language. . . such words account for more than half of the vocabulary of English, which has borrowed a great deal from Latin, Greek and French." Every language borrows words to increase its vocabulary. In the same way, Nepali language has also borrowed many words from different language like Sanskrit, Hindi, English. We can find many English words in Nepali language. For example, school, campus, radio, table, cycle, bus, football, ticket, bag, road, glass, type, hotel.

(2) Coinage

Coinage is one of the least common sources of new words in every language. It is actually coining the new words or the invention of totally new words and adding in the vocabulary of a language. New terms are coined after the invention of the new objects or things. When a new invention is made, a new word is formed from the existing material (Bhandari, 1996:82). The most important sources are invented trade names for one company's product which become general terms for any version of that product. For example: aspirin, nylon, zipper.

(3) Compounding

It is also a common process of word formation. In compounding, two or more words are joined together to form a totally new word. Compounding is very common in English and German language. ' . . . joining of two separate words to produce a single form is technically known as compounding (Yule, 1996:63).

For examples:

Verb + Noun

pick+pocket = pickpocket.

scare+ crow= scarecrow

Noun + Noun

book + case = bookcase

wall + paper = wallpaper

Adjective + Verbs

wide+spread = widespread

easy+ going = easygoing

(4) Blending

Blending is also a common source of new words through abbreviation. When two words combine together as having part of one word and part of another word is called blending (Bhandari, 1996:82). Blending involves joining two words together by taking parts of both words and welding the parts into a new whole. It is typically accomplished by taking only the beginning of one word

and joining it to the end of the other word. Many blends have only a short life and are very informal, but some have become more or less fully accepted in the language.

Example:

Television + broadcast = telecast

Smoke + fog = smog

Breakfast + lunch = brunch

Motor + hotel = motel

French + English = Frenglish

(5) Clipping

The element of reduction is even more apparent in the process of clipping. This occurs when a word of more than one syllable is reduced to a shorter form, often in casual speech (Yule, 1996:45). It is a process of reduction while forming a word but it does not change the type or the class of the word. Common examples are:

'ad' for advertisement

'flu' for influenza

'bra' for brassiere

'exam' for examination

'plane' for aeroplane

'maths' for mathematics

'lab' for laboratory

'prof' for professor

English speakers also like to clip other's names as in Ed, Mike, Sue, Tom etc.

(6) Backformation

It is also a process of reduction in which a shorter word is made out of a larger word. In backformation, a word of one type (usually a noun) is reduced to form another word of a different type (usually a verb). When a new word is made by the removal of an affix from the existing word, this is called back formation (Bhandari, 1996:82). Some examples of words created by this process are as follows:

televise (from television)

movie (from moving picture)

donate (from donation)

Barbie (from barbecue)

edit (from editor)

brekky (from breakfast)

burgle (from burglars)

hankie (from handkerchief)

(7) Acronym/Abbreviation

Some new words, known as a acronyms, are formed from the initial letters (or larger parts) of a set of other words. In acronyms, the pronunciation consists of the set of letters. Acronyms are pronounced as single word. These words, often consists of capital letter as in NATO, NASA, UNESCO, AIDS, VAT. These examples have kept their capital letters, but many acronyms lose their capitals to become everyday terms such as radar (radio detecting and ranging), zip (zone improvement plan).

Names of organization are often designed to have their acronym as WAR (women against rape), MADD (mothers against drunk driving). The difference between acronym and abbreviation is that abbreviation is not pronounced as a single word e.g. HIV, SLC.

(8) Derivation

Derivation is one of the common processes of word formation. We can find a huge number of derivative words in many languages. Derivative words are such words, which are made up of adding some bits of language to the root. Derivation mainly involves:

(i) Prefixation

re + claim = reclaim

un + true = untrue

ex + wife = exwife

a + moral = amoral

(ii) Suffixation

read + able = readable

friend + ship = friendship

care + less = careless

child + hood = childhood

(iii) Affixation involving both prefixation and suffixation

up + speak + able = unspeakable

(9) Conversion

A change in the function of a word, as for example, when a noun comes to be used as a verb (without any reduction), is generally known as conversion (Yule, 1996:54). For example, bottle, vacation, butter, paper are nouns but these words can be used in the form verbs as shown in the following sentences:

We bottled the packet of oil.

They vacationed in Pokhara.

Have you buttered the toast?

She is papering the walls.

The conversion process is widely used in modern English and new uses are occurring nouns as 'a guess' and 'a must'. The adjectives such as dirty, crazy, empty can become the verbs as 'to dirty', 'to crazy', 'to empty' or the nouns as 'a crazy', 'a dirty'.

Hence, words are formed variously. Even if so, the present research mainly focuses on the derivation process of word formation.

1.1.5 Public Speaking and its Types

Speaking is an important method of communicating knowledge and expressing ideas. It is a primary medium for presenting and selling products and ideas. Being able to communicate verbally and effectively to others individuals or to groups is essential in every walk of human's life in the 21st century. The same act of speaking in front of a large mass of people is called public speaking. Thus, public speaking is a skill of delivering speech in front a large and heterogeneous mass on various topics and contexts to attract them and conveying message to them in different styles. Except some rare cases, it is one way traffic. There remains no hard and fast rule for public speaking.

While talking about the general features of public speaking, we have to refer back to features of mass communication or media. It's also a form of mass

communication which serves as an example of mass media. In public speaking, mass is heterogeneous, unknown and in excessive large numbers. Similarly, message flows from only the speaker not from the audience that remain passive except listening to the speakers. Like TV/ radio, the audience isn't forced to hear or watch it. One can go anytime when s/he likes from the mass. Whatever the speaker speaks is for the audience i.e. the public speaking as named so because it's public/ audience oriented. In this sense, public speaking is very much similar to mass communication.

1.1.5.1 Types of Public Speaking

Generally, there are three types of public speaking on the basis of function.

- a) **Persuasive speaking** - The kind of speech which is made to persuade the audience to achieve some thing or do something is known to be persuasive speech; e.g. when a leader manages a public speaking, its persuasive because his/her main theme is to persuade people to vote for his/her belonging party. When a businessman organizes it, his main motive is to persuade people to buy the product. Thus persuasive speech is chiefly to persuade and convince people to do or achieve the determined objective.
- b) **Informative public speech** - The public speaking organized for the purpose of informing people about something is called informative speaking. It's organized primarily for the information purpose. When a doctor organizes a public speaking, about spreading epidemic diarrhea, his main theme is to inform people about the disease, symptoms, precaution, aids, etc.
- c) **Ceremonial public speaking** - There are various public speaking organized on the occasion of certain ceremony. These are known as ceremonial public speaking.

Common types of ceremonial speeches include: introductions, welcomes, farewells, award presentations, acceptances thank you toasts, after dinner speeches, sermons prayers, and ceremonial speeches such as tributes, keynotes, and commencement speeches.

1.2 Literature Review

Only a few researches have been carried out in the area of code-mixing and code-switching in comparison to other areas under the English Language Education Department.

Baral (2005) conducted a research on "Code-Mixing in Nepali Cinemas". He came up with the conclusion that code mixing is often caused by context, language function and sentence types. English words and expressions are used in Nepali language because of the richness in vocabulary and imitation of others – according to the researcher. His research is also confined to Nepali "cine jagat" rather than other free speaking.

Luitel (2005) carried out a research on "Code-Mixing in Nepali Stories". He found out that English words are repeatedly used in stories and it is higher in comparison to last ten years. Mostly nouns are mixed. Some of the words have already been assimilated into Nepali language. He did not talk about the state of code mixing especially in spoken Nepali.

Pangeni (2005) conducted a descriptive and practical study of code mixing in Kantipur and Classic FM radio programmes in Nepal. His overall study concluded that English code mixing in Nepali language takes place while speaking. Various English words, expressions and structures occur automatically in Nepali language as per the demand of the context and the topic.

Poudel (2005) carried out a research on code switching in T.U., Premises. He stated that switching does not take place only when there is a lexical gap, instead, there are more semantic or pragmatic reasons for the motivation for

code switching. He further stated that many compound words are formed with one element from English and other from Nepali.

Subedi (2001) carried out a research on code mixing in Gorkhapatra. He found out that urban people can make use of and understand more English words than rural people. Similarly, he further stated that the use of English acronym is very popular in Nepali newspapers. He also pointed out assimilated and non-assimilated words with their frequency of occurrence so far as code mixing is concerned here, Subedi did not talk about code mixing in public speaking and other electronic mass media.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The specific objectives of the study are as follows:

- To find out the English words that are repeatedly used in Nepali speech.
- To determine the conditioning factors for code-mixing, if any.
- To enlist some pedagogical implications.

1.4 Significance of the Study

This study is beneficial to the students, teachers, syllabus designers, textbook writers and critical mass who are involved directly or indirectly in the business of teaching and learning language(s). It is significant for them in the sense that they do have more ideas about the assimilated words of English into Nepali language. Similarly, they do know the social trend or fashion in relation to oral language. Language is ever changeable so that they need to take into consideration how spoken language is used in real life. The direct impact of public speech on language business needs to be looked at duly by the respective personnel. It is equally important to tease out the conditioning factors and underlying systems of code mixing. Moreover, this study is fruitful to know the trend of English code-mixing in the context of Nepal. Above all, this study is

fruitful in the area of bilingualism and multilingualism of sociolinguistics. It contributes us for the way to know about the use of spoken language in different scene and settings. Hopefully, this research does have a great significance in language teaching and learning realm so far.

CHAPTER TWO

METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the methodology employed in the study.

2.1 Sources of Data

The researcher exploited both primary and secondary sources of data.

2.1.1 Primary Sources of Data

The primary sources of the data for this study were the following 50 Nepali public speakers (informants) from different sectors of life.

Table No. 2

Name of the Public Speakers along with their Backgrounds

S.N.	Name of the Speakers	Background
1.	Mr. Surendra Pandey	Politics
2.	Prof. Krishna Pokheral	Intellectual
3.	Mr. Bamdev Gautam	Politics
4.	Dr. Rambaran Yadav	Politics
5.	Mr. Dev Gurung	Politics
6.	Mr. Jhalanath Khanal	Politics
7.	Dr. Bishwokalyan Parajuli	Intellectual
8.	Mr. Hari Krishna Sharma	Politics
9.	Mr. Ram Bdr. Thapa Magar	Law
10.	Mr. Shreeraj Neupane	Civil Society
11.	Prof. Bhim Neupane	Educational
12.	Mr. Rohit Dahal	Journalism
13.	Mr. Dinesh Subedi	Politics
14.	Mr. Saroj Rauniyaar	Politics
15.	Mr. Shiva Gaunle	Journalism
16.	Mr. Kamal Koirala	Politics
17.	Mr. Rajendra Dawadi	Politics
18.	Mr. Kundan Aryal	Journalism

19.	Mr. Arjun Karki	Politics
20.	Mrs. Nirmal Sharma	Politics
21.	Mr. Shishir Dhungel	Politics
22.	Mr. Indra Narayan (Gautam)	Politics
23.	Mr. Laxmi Kishor Subedi	Politics
24.	Mr. Purushottam Poudel	Politics
25.	Mr. Gagan Singh Bohora	Politics
26.	Mr. Binaya Adhikari	Politics
27.	Mr. Bidur K.C.	Politics
28.	Mr. Badri Pd. Dahal	Politics
29.	Mr. Tek Nath Sharma	Politics
30.	Mr. Manoj K.G.	Politics
31.	Dr. Devendra Raj Pandey	Civil Society
32.	Mr. Navin Gautam	Health
33.	Mr. Ashok Sharma	Cinema
34.	Mr. Jeevan Karki	Politics
35.	Mr. Dinesh Kmr. Ghimire	Politics
36.	Mr. Padma Ratna Tuladhar	Human Rights
37.	Mr. Shiva Kmr. Shrestha	Politics
38.	Mr. Uttam Rai	Politics
39.	Mrs. Durga Basnet	Politics
40.	Mr. C.P. Rijal	Human Rights
41.	Mr. Dhan Bdr. Resmi	Tourism
42.	Mr. Pitamber Chauhan	Politics
43.	Mr. Kumar Gurung	Tourism
44.	Mrs. Sarashowati Acharya	Politics
45.	Mr. Gopal Guragain	Politics
46.	Mr. Durga Linkha	Politics
47.	Mr. Pradeep Giri	Politics
48.	Mr. Ashok Shrestha	Politics
49.	Mr. Ramesh Budhathoki	Film Industry
50.	Mr. Krishna Chapagain	Politics

2.1.2 Secondary Source Data

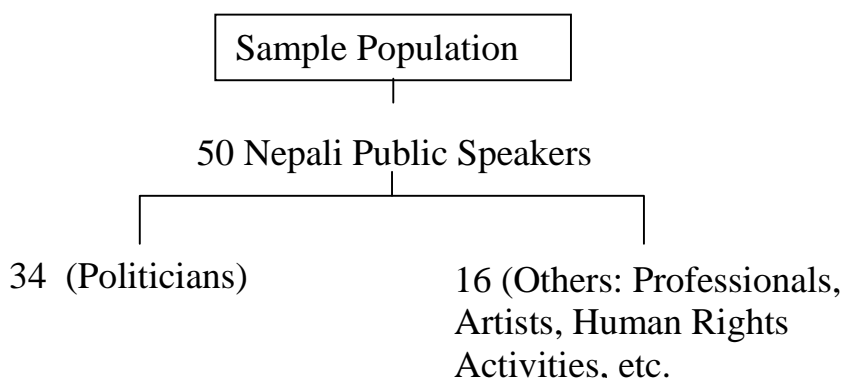
The secondary sources of data for the present study were different books, thesis, magazines, articles journals, television channels, internet, etc. which are closely related to the research work. For examples: sociolinguistics, English for Mass Media, Kantipur, NELTA, linguisticworld.com, etc.

2.2 Population of the Study

The population of the study were 50 Nepali public speakers found in Kathmandu Valley.

2.3 Sampling Procedure

50 Nepali public speakers were chosen judgmentally to carry out this study. The selected informants were of different fields and their speech was recorded in different places, time and occasions under different topics. The framework of the sampled population is as follows:



2.4 Tools for Data Collection

The researcher prepared an observation schedule(s) before going to the field to record/hear the speech of the public speakers. The observation schedules (schedule-1 and -2) contained the required tips for the research such as type of the speakers, topic, context, mixed words, frequency of them, parts of speech of them, etc. in which code mixing took place [Appx. I and II] Furthermore, the researcher used recorder to record the events of the speech delivered by the public speakers (5-8 minutes of each) to analyze the nature of code mixing.

2.5 Process of Data Collection

Having read different books, journals and researches that were related to the present research, the researcher prepared two different observation schedules. The schedule-1 was exploited to keep the instances of code mixing to the speech recorded. And the schedule-2 was used for jotting down the mixed words and sentences along with the context except the recorded ones. Then, the researcher visited different places taking the tape-recorder and the prepared observation schedules to record the speech of different public speakers, and fill up the schedules accordingly. The researcher recorded the voice of the speakers (5-8 mins, of each) on the recorder, especially of beginning phase. Finally, all the recorded speeches were edited and put in serial, and the observation sheets were also collected.

2.6 Limitations of the Study

The limitations of the study were as follows:

1. The number of sample population was 50 Nepali public speakers of different backgrounds found in Kathmandu valley.
2. The area of the study was limited to the English words, phrases, and sentences, (if any) mixed in Nepali public speaking, mixed by the selected public speakers only.
3. Only the mixed English codes were analysed.

CHAPTER THREE

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

Introduction

This chapter deals with the analysis and interpretation of the collected data to fulfill the set objectives. Here, the data are analysed and interpreted mainly on the basis of the following headings.

- A. Classwise Analysis of the English Words Mixed
- B. Topicwise Analysis of the English Words Mixed
- C. Word formationwise Analysis of the English Words Mixed
- D. Sentencewise Analysis of the Expressions Mixed
- E. Reasonwise Analysis of the Code Mixed

3.1 Classwise Analysis of the English Words Mixed

Broadly, word class is categorized into four different types viz. noun, verb, adjective and adverb. The words that are mixed in Nepali public speaking under study are classified in the following table.

Table No. 3
Word Classes Mixed in Nepali Public Speaking

Informants	Word Class					Percentage (%)
	Noun	Verb	Adjective	Adverb	Total (F)	
Speaker-1	8	2	3	×	13	5.93
Speaker-2	7	2	5	×	14	6.39
Speaker-3	2	2	1	×	5	2.20
Speaker-4	5	×	×	×	5	2.28
Speaker-5	2	1	1	×	4	1.82
Speaker-6	3	2	1	×	6	2.73
Speaker-7	5	1	2	×	8	3.65
Speaker-8	3	1	2	×	6	2.73
Speaker-9	1	×	2	1	4	1.82
Speaker-10	4	×	1	1	6	2.73
Speaker-11	3	×	2	×	5	2.28

Speaker-12	3	×	×	×	3	1.36
Speaker-13	3	2	×	×	5	2.28
Speaker-14	1	1	1	1	4	1.82
Speaker-15	4	1	×	×	5	2.28
Speaker-16	2	×	1	×	3	1.36
Speaker-17	2	1	2	×	5	2.28
Speaker-18	1	1	1	×	3	1.36
Speaker-19	3	2	1	×	6	2.73
Speaker-20	2	1	1	×	4	1.82
Speaker-21	2	×	2	×	4	1.82
Speaker-22	×	×	2	×	2	0.91
Speaker-23	3	1	×	×	3	1.36
Speaker-24	5	×	×	×	5	2.28
Speaker-25	4	×	1	×	5	2.28
Speaker-26	4	×	×	×	4	1.82
Speaker-27	4	×	×	×	4	1.82
Speaker-28	4	×	×	×	4	1.82
Speaker-29	3	×	1	×	4	1.82
Speaker-30	3	1	×	×	4	1.82
Speaker-31	5	×	1	×	6	2.73
Speaker-32	3	1	×	×	4	1.82
Speaker-33	3	1	×	×	4	1.82
Speaker-34	×	2	×	1	3	1.36
Speaker-35	2	×	2	×	4	1.82
Speaker-36	1	×	2	×	3	1.36
Speaker-37	2	×	×	×	2	0.91
Speaker-38	3	2	×	×	5	2.28
Speaker-39	2	×	1	×	3	1.36
Speaker-40	2	×	1	×	3	1.36
Speaker-41	3	×	×	×	3	1.36
Speaker-42	2	1	×	×	3	1.36
Speaker-43	2	1	×	1	4	1.82
Speaker-44	1	1	×	×	2	0.91

Speaker-45	1	1	×	×	2	0.91
Speaker-46	1	×	×	×	1	0.45
Speaker-47	1	×	1	1	3	1.36
Speaker-48	2	×	1	×	3	1.36
Speaker-49	2	×	×	×	2	0.91
Speaker-50	2	1	1	1	5	2.28
Total					219	100

The table above shows the classwise distribution of words mixed by the sampled informants, where the total words are analogues to the frequency of those words. The distribution of word class shown in the above table presents that the use of English words in Nepali public speaking is a natural phenomenon and it is used by almost all sort of personalities. Speaker-2 (Prof. Krishna Pokhrel) has mixed the greatest number of English words whereas speaker-46 (Mr. Durga Linkha) has mixed the lowest number of English words as shown in the table above.

3.1.1 Nounwise Analysis of the Words Mixed

Here, the nouns mixed by the sampled informants are analysed and interpreted using simple statistical tools like frequency and percentage. This is shown in the following table.

Table No. 4
Nouns Mixed in Nepali Public Speaking

Informants	Frequency	Percentage
Speaker-1	8	5.80
Speaker-2	7	5.15
Speaker-3	2	1.47
Speaker-4	5	3.67
Speaker-5	2	1.47
Speaker-6	3	2.20
Speaker-7	5	3.67
Speaker-8	3	2.20
Speaker-9	1	0.73

Speaker-10	4	2.94
Speaker-11	3	2.20
Speaker-12	3	2.20
Speaker-13	3	2.20
Speaker-14	1	0.73
Speaker-15	4	2.94
Speaker-16	2	1.47
Speaker-17	2	1.47
Speaker-18	1	0.73
Speaker-19	3	2.20
Speaker-20	2	1.47
Speaker-21	2	1.47
Speaker-23	3	2.20
Speaker-24	5	3.67
Speaker-25	4	2.94
Speaker-26	4	2.94
Speaker-27	4	2.94
Speaker-28	4	2.94
Speaker-29	3	2.20
Speaker-30	3	2.20
Speaker-31	5	2.67
Speaker-32	3	2.20
Speaker-33	3	2.20
Speaker-35	2	1.47
Speaker-36	1	0.73
Speaker-37	2	1.47
Speaker-38	3	2.20
Speaker-39	2	1.47
Speaker-40	2	1.47
Speaker-41	3	2.20
Speaker-42	2	1.47
Speaker-43	2	1.47
Speaker-44	1	0.73

Speaker-45	1	0.73
Speaker-46	1	0.73
Speaker-47	1	0.73
Speaker-48	2	1.47
Speaker-49	2	1.47
Speaker-50	2	1.47
Total	136	100

The table above shows that speaker-1 (Mr. Surendra Pandey) has mixed the greatest number of nouns (i.e., 8 : 5.88%) whereas other speakers' frequency of nouns mixing in public speaking is in between 1 to 6 word (s).

The following few are the examples of nouns mixed in public speaking.

- J) Ma yesma yaha harulai kina justification garna chahanchhy bhane(speaker-1)
- J) Pratinidhitto ma tinai rajnitik Dal harulai nai preference dinu parchha. (speaker-2)
- J) Desh lai chahine manpower yo shikchha le utpadan garna sakena. (speaker-27), etc.

3.1.2 Verbwise analysis of the Words Mixed

In the table below the English verbs mixed by Nepali public speakers are analysed using their frequency of occurrence and percentage they obtained.

Table No. 5

Verbs Mixed in Nepali Public Speaking

Informants	Frequency	Percentage
Speaker-1	2	9.09
Speaker-2	2	9.09
Speaker-3	2	9.09
Speaker-5	1	4.45
Speaker-6	2	9.09
Speaker-7	1	4.45

Speaker-8	1	4.45
Speaker-13	2	9.09
Speaker-14	1	4.54
Speaker-15	1	4.54
Speaker-17	1	4.54
Speaker-18	1	4.54
Speaker-19	2	9.09
Speaker-20	1	4.54
Speaker-23	1	4.54
Speaker-30	1	×
Speaker-32	1	4.54
Speaker-33	1	4.54
Speaker-34	2	9.09
Speaker-38	2	9.09
Speaker-42	1	4.54
Speaker-43	1	4.54
Speaker-44	1	4.54
Speaker-45	1	4.54
Speaker-50	1	4.54
Total	33	100

The table above shows that the number of verbs mixed by the sampled informants is far lower than nouns mixed by them. Out of the total verbs mixed, i.e. 33, speakers 1, 2, 3, 6, 13, 19, 34 and 38 have mixed relatively the higher percentage, i.e. 9.09 whereas other 25 speakers have mixed only 4.54 of percentage.

The following few instances help to exemplify the use of English verbs in Nepali public speaking:

-) Rajjya yesari chhaldaina bhanne anubhuti bhaishake pachhi aba restructuring nagari hundaina. (speaker-2)
-) Aja Kun bakti yahan ramro sanga settle bhayeko chha? (speaker-32)
-) Hamile kasailai pani neglect garera aghi badhnu hudaina. (speaker-34), etc.

3.1.3 Adjectivewise Analysis of the Words Mixed

This section analyses and describes the adjectives that have been mixed by the sampled informants. Here, the analysis and interpretation of adjectives is done on the basis of their frequency of occurrence and the percentage they obtained as shown in the following table.

Table No. 6

Adjectives Mixed in Nepali Public Speaking

Informants	Frequency	Percentage
Speaker-1	3	6.97
Speaker-2	5	11.62
Speaker-3	1	2.32
Speaker-5	1	2.32
Speaker-6	1	2.32
Speaker-7	2	4.65
Speaker-8	2	4.65
Speaker-9	2	4.65
Speaker-10	1	2.32
Speaker-11	2	4.65
Speaker-14	1	2.32
Speaker-16	1	2.32
Speaker-17	2	4.65
Speaker-18	1	2.32
Speaker-19	1	2.32
Speaker-20	1	2.32
Speaker-21	2	4.65
Speaker-22	2	4.65
Speaker-25	1	2.32
Speaker-29	1	2.32
Speaker-31	1	2.32
Speaker-35	2	4.65
Speaker-36	2	4.65
Speaker-39	1	2.32
Speaker-40	1	2.32
Speaker-47	1	2.32
Speaker-48	1	2.32
Speaker-50	1	2.32
Total	43	100

The above table displays the number of adjectives mixed by the sampled informants which is greater than the number of verbs mixed by them. Out of the total informants (i.e. 50), only 28 have mixed adjectives in their speech. Within 28, speaker-2 (Prof. Krishna Pokhrel) has mixed the greatest number of adjectives i.e. 5 (11.62%) whereas other speakers' percentage of adjectives mixing is very low.

The following few instances help to exemplify the use of adjectives in Nepali public speaking.

- J Yahan haru dherai kurama silent hunuhunchha (speaker-1)
- J Jo yauta viable state ko rupma rahane sambhawana ma dekhtina. (speaker-2)
- J Samaj soche jati complex nahuna pani sakchha. (speker-36), etc.

3.1.4 Adverbwise Analysis of the Words Mixed

This section entails the analysis and interpretation of English adverbs mixed in Nepali public speaking by the sampled informants, which is done on the basis of their frequency of occurrence and the percentage they obtained.

Table No. 7

Adverbs Mixed in Nepali Public Speaking

Informants	Frequency	Percentage
Speaker-8	1	14.28
Speaker-9	1	14.28
Speaker-14	1	14.28
Speaker-34	1	14.28
Speaker-43	1	14.28
Speaker-47	1	14.28
Speaker-49	1	14.28
Total	7	100

The table above shows the fact that the use of English adverbs in Nepali public speaking is very low in comparison to other word classes. Only 7 speakers have

mixed adverbs in their speech, which is again very low from the viewpoint of frequency.

The following instances help to exemplify the use of adverbs in Nepali public speaking.

- J Hamro shasan pranali lai regularly pribartan garna pani kathin chha, (speaker-9)
- J Again, rajnitik Dalharu nai jimbebar hunu paryo. (speaker-10)
- J Collaboratively, aghi badhau, Shanti dherai tadha, chaina.... (speaker-50), etc.

3.1.5 Holistic Analysis of Word Classes

Here comes an analysis and interpretation of word classes holistically. Again, holistic comparison is done on the basis of their frequency of occurrence and the percentage they obtained. In the table below, the frequency is analogues to the number of perspective word class.

Table No. 8

Holistic Comparison of Word Classes

S.N.	Word Class	Frequency	Percentage
1.	Noun	136	62.18
2.	Verb	33	15.06
3.	Adjective	43	19.63
4.	Adverb	7	3.19
Total		219	100

The table above vividly shows that the number of English nouns mixed in Nepali public speaking is the highest. Similarly, adjective occupies the second rank, verb the third and adverb the last.

3.2 Topicwise Analysis of the English Words Mixed

This section deals with analysis and interpretation of the English words mixed in Nepali public speaking in terms of different topics/fields. Here, the topics have been made covering the areas of the speech delivered. These are the broad topics to be analysed. The words mixed under different topics are analysed in the following table;

Table No. 9

Words Mixed in Different Topics of Nepali Public Speaking

S.N.	Topic/Field	Number of the Words Mixed	Percentage
1.	Political	88	40.18
2.	Media, Journalism and Human Rights	39	17.80
3.	Educational	19	8.67
4.	Economical	50	22.83
5.	Social	23	10.50
Total		219	100

The above table shows that the words that are related to political field have been mixed highly than of other topics. And the words of educational topic have been mixed in the lowest number.

3.3 Word Formationwise Analysis of the Words Mixed

This section copes with the analysis and interpretation of English words mixed in Nepali public speaking in relation to their formation. Words are formed variously, here comes, however, the analysis of them only on the basis of derivation to suit the collected data. Derivation consists of derivative and non-derivative words regarding word formation process in English.

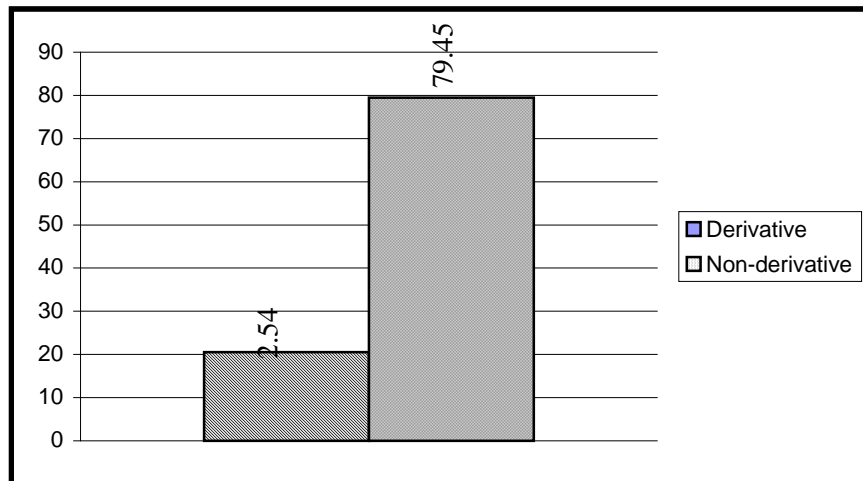
Diagram No. 1

Word Formation Process of the English Codes Mixed in Nepali Public Speaking

Total words mixed under study = 219

Derivative = 45

Non-derivative = 174



The bar diagram above shows that the non-derivative words have been mixed in the greatest number than the derivative ones in public speech. The percentage of non-derivative words mixed is 79.45 whereas the percentage of derivative words mixed is only 20.54 as has been presented in the bar diagram above.

3.4 Sentencewise Analysis of the Expressions Mixed

This is an angle to analyse the state of code mixing at sentence level. Mainly, sentences are of three types in English viz. Simple sentence (S_S), Compound sentence (C_S), and Complex Sentence (C_{XS}). The sentences mixed in the time of public speaking are analysed on the basis of their types from the viewpoint of their frequency and percentage as shown in the table below:

Table No. 10

Sentences Mixed in Nepali Public Speaking

S.N.	Informants	Simple	Compound	Complex
1.	Speaker-2	×	1	×
2.	Speaker-10	1	×	×
3.	Speaker-26	1	×	×
4.	Speaker-37	×	×	1
Total		2	1	1

The table above shows the distribution of English sentences mixed in Nepali Public Speaking. Regarding the sentence types, two speakers have mixed (1+1=2) simple sentence and other two speakers have mixed compound sentence (1), and complex sentence (1) respectively.

The following few instances help to exemplify the use of English sentences in Nepali public speaking

-) Pakistan has been divided due to the coupzemony and India is united due to the democracy. (speaker-2)
-) Government must be responsible to restore the political status of the nation. (speaker-10)
-) Country's future depends on its politics and ruling system. (speaker- 26)
-) I can still remember when I was a teacher..... (speaker-37)

3.4.1 Holistic Comparison of English Sentences

The table below shows the analysis of English Sentences holistically.

Table No. 11

Holistic Comparison of English Sentences Mixed

S.N.	Sentence Types	Frequency	Percentage
1.	Simple Sentence	2	50
2.	Compound Sentence	1	25
3.	Complex Sentence	1	25
Total		4	100

[Appx: I and II]

The table above shows that code mixing at sentence level is not common. Among few sentences mixed, the use of simple sentence in public speaking is high. Out of the total speakers (i.e. 4) to mix the English code at sentence level, 2 speakers have mixed (1+1=2) simple sentences, so the percentage of this sentence mixed is 50 whereas other 2 speakers have mixed 1 compound, and 1 complex sentence(s) respectively, so the percentage of both types (i.e. compound and complex) is 25 only.

3.5 Reasonwise Analysis of the Codes Mixed

In this section, the mixed English words are analysed on the basis of the purpose or reason to be mixed in public speaking. After listening the speakers' speech on the player and observing the observation schedules (esp. II) several times, some criteria have been made to find out the reason for code mixing. Here, the researcher's intuitive knowledge is highly used along with the help of supportive evidences. The following table presents this.

Table No. 12

Reasons for Code Mixing in Nepali Public Speaking

Reasons	Total Number of Words Mixed	Percentage
Meaning Clarification	16	7.30
Choice of the Topic	37	16.89
Assimilated in Nepali	6	2.74
Automatic Habit	160	73.05
Total	219	100

The above presented table shows that the main reason for English code mixing in Nepali public speaking is the speakers' automatic habit. They often mix the codes because of the selection of the topic. But the percentage of this reason is very low than the reason of automatic habit. Sometimes, speakers mix English words to clarify the meaning of the speech they deliver. Finally, speakers mix English words in public speaking because of the assimilated English words into

Nepali language. Hence, it can be said that English code mixing in Nepali public speaking is a natural process.

The following instances help to verify the reasons mentioned above.

) Kohi parmapara ko kura garchhan, kohi sanstha ko kura garchhan: that means Rajjya ajhai pani rajtantra jogauna tirai dekhinchha.

[Meaning clarification]: speaker-1

) Inclusive Democracy ko abadharana bikasit bhai sakeko pariprekchha ma hamile

[Choice of the topic]: speaker-7

) Pratek Party prasta hunuparchha.

[Assimilated in Nepali]: speaker-7

) Yedi hamro rajniti pani tehai job kai lagi matrai simit bhayo bhane

[Automatic Habit]: speaker-23, etc.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This is the final chapter of the dissertation, which consists of findings and recommendations of the study.

4.1 Findings of the Study

After the completion of analysis and interpretation, the following findings have been derived regarding the English code mixing in Nepali public speaking.

1. Word level code mixing was found to be high than sentence level mixing.
2. Words that are fashionable and/or common in Nepali use were mixed maximally in Nepali public speaking. For examples: Party, behaviour, fix, press, copy, dalit, issue, student, etc.
3. Regarding the use of English word classes in Nepali public speaking, nouns and adjectives were very high in use followed by verbs and adverbs.
4. It was found that the political topic demands for the maximum use of English words than the other topics such as educational, social, economical, etc.
5. Non-derivative English words were repeatedly mixed than the derivate ones in Nepali public speaking.
6. Simple sentences were used a bit greater than the compound and complex sentences whenever there is code mixing at sentence level.
7. Mixing of English codes in Nepali public speaking was often caused by the speakers' automatic habit. It is because of the richness of English vocabs and the trend of English language use in daily life.

8. Code mixing in Nepali public speaking was also caused by the topic and meaning clarification of the speech. Some of the words were mixed due to their assimilation into the Nepali language.
9. English code mixing in Nepali public speaking was found in all the speakers irrespective of their knowledge and backgrounds.

4.2 Recommendations

The following recommendations are made in the light of the findings yielded by the study.

1. Amongst the English words mixed in Nepali public speaking, some of them are used frequently and some are used occasionally. Thus, while teaching English for communication, care should be taken at the most frequently used English words in normal human life.
2. A look at the overall mixing of English codes in Nepali public speaking reveals that nouns and adjectives need to be emphasized mostly while teaching English language before teaching verbs and adverbs.
3. There are some underlying factors leading to code mixing. Those factors, which compel the speakers to mix the English codes into Nepali language should be identified.
4. Simple sentences and non-derivative words should be given priority before teaching compound and complex sentences, and derivative words in the English language.
5. While designing the course for English learners, the designer has to include the words, which are mixed frequently in public speaking.
6. English code mixing is common in every genre and area of Nepali language and literature. Study of code mixing only in public speaking is not sufficient to generalize the state of English coding mixing in Nepali language so that

English code mixing in other Nepali genres and areas such as poem, novel, interview, hospital, supermarket, etc. should also be studied.

7. Mixing of the English code mainly depends on the context and topic so that the instructor or teacher needs to be careful about the context and topic while teaching the English language.
8. English code mixing in the Nepali language has become a natural process, so the demand of the English language in our context is high. Therefore, English should be learnt and taught very carefully from the very beginning whether it be a formal or non-formal.

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