The printing process quickly spread across Europe. Until the end of the XV century. printing appeared in Italy in 1465, in Switzerland in 1468, in France, Belgium, Hungary, Poland in 1470, in England in 1474, in Czechoslovakia in 1476, in Austria, Denmark in 1482, in Sweden in 1483, in Portugal in 1487. In total, until the end of the XV century.in the cities of Europe, there were 1,100-1,700 printing houses. They have released a total of 40,000 incunabula titles. Currently, there are 500 thousand copies left, of which 50% are religious, the rest are secular.

The first printers had at their disposal a vast amount of literary material accumulated by previous generations, which could be selected for publication. Initially, the books were published in Latin, but gradually more and more books appear in national languages. [1]

In England, the birth of printing dates back to the last quarter of the XV century. and is associated with the name of William Caxton. He founded a printing house near Westminster Abbey. In 1474, the first book in England, The Discourses and Aphorisms of the Philosophers, was published here, and in 1476, a book called The Canterbury Tales by Geoffrey Chaucer appeared. The first edition had 742 pages, the second - 622. During the first 3 years of the printing house's existence, about 30 voluminous editions were printed, for example, the edition of "Polychronics" has 890 pages, "The History of King Arthur" has 862 pages. He published Caxton and illustrated books. For example, The Mirror of the World (1481) was accompanied by wood engravings. In total, Caxton has printed 99 books, of which 78 are in English. The printer died in Westminster in 1491, and after his death the printing house passed to Winkin de Ward, who printed a lot, but his books were not of high quality. [2]

The first printed books published before 1500 are called incunabula. They were similar to handwritten ones, as they were printed in fonts made on the basis of samples of local schools of calligraphy. Each typographer sought to produce their own fonts. Before 1500, there were about 2000 varieties of fonts. The first printed books were made without paragraphs, the text was not divided into chapters. The most important sections of the book were printed from the red line. They did not have a title page, which indicated the time and place of the book's release. This data was placed at the end of the book, in the colophon, where the place and date were indicated, the name of the printer, or the sign of the publisher, the title of the book. The first printed colophon appeared in the Mainz Psalter of Fust-Schaeffer in 1457. The title page was first introduced by Erhard Rathdolt in 1476, when he published Regiomontan's "Astronomical Calendar" in Venice. In 1500, the first title page appeared in Leipzig, its content is close to the modern one.

Since 1470, foliation, that is, the numbering of sheets, was introduced, and at the end of the XV century. Aldus Manutius introduced pagination-page numbering. Incunabula had custodes and signatures. The signatures indicated the number of the notebook with a certain letter, and each sheet of the notebook was indicated by a number. Since 1472, custodes and signatures have been introduced into the set. [3]

A characteristic feature of incunabula is the signet-the printer's personal sign, placed after the colophon. The illustrations were printed from wooden boards. The predominant formats of the first printed books were infolio, inquarto, and inoctavo.

Printing was invented three times: in China, in Korea, and in medieval Europe. The first printed book is considered to be a text created with woodcut in Korea in the period from 704 to 751. In China, printing was invented, according to some sources (Julien, "Documents sur l'art d'imprimerie"), in 581 AD, and according to Chinese sources — between 935 and 993 years. The first accurately dated printed text is a Chinese woodcut copy of the Buddhist Diamond Sutra, published in 868.[4]

Printing was carried out as follows: on wooden trestles, on which convex letters were cut out, liquid paint was applied, then a sheet of paper was placed on top and rubbed with a soft brush.

The history of printing begins with the moment when they began to produce metal, movable, convex letters carved in a mirror image. From them, lines were typed and printed on paper with the help of a press. [5]

The first printed books (incunabula) have been preserved in an extremely small number of copies; they are quite similar to the handwritten books, both in font and in appearance. The first printers imitated the manuscripts in everything, or the latter were valued much more dearly, and the public at first habitually demanded the manuscript, suspecting the intervention of the devil in the press; the first printed copies, issued in the form of manuscripts, did not mark the year, the place of printing, or the name of the printer.

The printing process quickly spread across Europe. Until the end of the XV century. printing appeared in Italy in 1465, in Switzerland in 1468, in France, Belgium, Hungary, Poland in 1470, in England in 1474, in Czechoslovakia in 1476, in Austria, Denmark in 1482, in Sweden in 1483, in Portugal in 1487. In total, until the end of the XV century.in the cities of Europe, there were 1,100-1,700 printing houses. They have released a total of 40,000 incunabula titles. Currently, there are 500 thousand copies left, of which 50% are religious, the rest are secular. [6]

Many great scholars have worked on the study of the English language of the printed era. This area is so vast that any choice will be arbitrary. J. D. Bone, in the essay "Tyndall and the English Language", points out: "Tyndall's task was to make the Gospel a living and a table book. He had to bring the parables back to life… Before the Bible was translated into English, very few people thought that parables should relate to people's daily lives."

Here the idea is implicitly expressed that the language of everyday communication, gaining visual character, should also cause a need for literature related to everyday life. Printing, having turned to national languages, turned them into means of communication, and this is not surprising, since it was the first form of mass production. But the conversion of printing to Latin had fatal consequences for the latter: "The efforts of the great Italian humanists, from Petrarch with his 'Africa' to Cardinal Bembo, unexpectedly produced the opposite effect: Latin was put out of use."C. S. Lewis, in the book "English Literature of the sixteenth century" [11, p.21] wrote:

It is mainly to the humanists that we owe the strange concept of the" classical " period in the development of language, i.e., the correct or normative period, before which everything was immature, archaic, and after which everything fell into decline. Thus Scaliger asserts that the Latin of Plautus was "rough", in the period from Terence to Virgil — "mature", in Martial and Juvenal it was already in decline and became infirm in Ausonius (Poetis viii). Almost the same thing is said by Viv (De tradendis disciplinis iv). Vida even more categorically attributes all ancient Greek poetry after Homer to a period of decline (Poeticorum I, p. 139). Once this preconceived notion was established, it naturally led to the belief that writing well in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries meant slavishly imitating the literature of a certain period in the past. Any real development of the Latin language, which would meet the needs of new talents and new subjects, has become impossible. With a single stroke of "his petrified rod", the classical spirit put an end to the history of the Latin language. This was not what the humanists wanted at all.

Fevre and Martin also point out (in the Appearance of the Book) the role of the revival of ancient Roman writing. "Moreover, the return to the ancient alphabet even contributed to the fact that Latin became a dead language."[11, p.479] This is the most important point. The very letters that we associate with the seal were not medieval, but ancient Roman, and they were used by humanists as part of their archaeological enterprise. It was the high visual quality of Roman writing, as if specially designed for the printed press, that was the main factor that put an end to the dominance of Latin, even more than the revival of ancient styles with the help of the printed word.

Printing led to a direct visual clash of frozen antique styles. The humanists were surprised to discover how far their spoken Latin had strayed from the classical form, and decided to teach Latin based on printed text rather than verbal communication, in the hope of thus stopping the further spread of their barbaric medieval Latin speech and idioms. Lewis sums it up as follows : "They succeeded in killing off medieval Latin, but their attempts to revive the language of the Augustan era failed." [11, p.21]

In conclusion, the process of printing books was quickly spread across Europe. In Italy, in France, in Belgium,in Hungary, in Poland, in England and in other countries, the printing of books appeared before the end of the 15th century.The first printers had at their disposal a huge amount of literary material. Initially, the books were published in Latin, but gradually more and more books appear in the national languages. We learned that the first printing house in England was founded by William Caxton. It was originally published in Westminster, then in London; the number of its publications exceeded about 400. Another important role in the development of printing in England was played by John Day. He received the right to publish a book and published a book "The History of Acts and Monuments of the church". The volume of this book was two thousand pages. The first printed books published before 1500 are called incunabula. They were similar to handwritten ones, as they were printed in fonts made on the basis of samples of local calligraphy schools. Each typographer sought to create their own typeface. Before 1500, there were about 2000 varieties of fonts. The first printed books were made without paragraphs, the text was not divided into chapters. The most important sections of the book were printed with a red line. They did not have a title page that would indicate the time and place of publication of the book.

In addition, we can notice that printing was created three times. For the first time in Korea , China, and Central Europe. The printing of the book was carried out in this way: convex letters were cut out on wooden trestles, liquid paints were applied, then a sheet of paper was placed on top and wiped with a soft brush. Such early books were called incunabula.

Of course, the printing house opened up new opportunities for merchants. They started buying books from publishers and selling them on the market. The sale of printed books became a profitable field of activity and brought a good income.

Eventually, the printing of books affected the English language as well. Printing has become a factor in the formation and stabilization of languages.Language asserts its validity in three categories of human experience. The first category is the meanings of words; the second is the meanings of words set in grammatical forms; and the third, according to the author of this book, the most important is the meanings.

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