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56	Abstract		In protected areas (e.g. geoparks, UNESCO sites), the identification of the different aspects of geoheritage site values is part of a holistic concept of protection, education and sustainable development. In the past years, significant progress has been achieved in the volcano tourism in Hungary as shown by the acceptance of two geoparks as members of Global Geoparks Network. They are the Bakony–Balaton Geopark and the Novohrad–Nograd Geopark, which involves also the old village of Hollókő UNESCO cultural heritage site. These geoparks as well as the recently (2013) opened Kemenes Volcano Park used primarily the volcanological natural values in their application, and these play still an important role to attract the visitors. The Tokaj Wine Region (TWR) Historic Cultural Landscape (inscribed on the World Heritage List in 2002 as a cultural site) is also characterized by high geodiversity due to

complex volcanic settings (andesite–dacite composite cones, silicic pyroclastites, lava domes, hydrothermal activity) and specialized viticultural land use of the cultural landscape. While the area of the Bakony–Balaton Geopark is situated in a well-known region and has a long tradition in tourism with a lot of innovation, the Tokaj wine region needs a significant effort to introduce their volcanic geoheritage values into the tourism market. The systematic inventory and assessment of the geoheritage elements are essential steps in different scales of geoconservation and establishment of the priorities in site management. This inventory work emphasizes the relationship between the sites at different scales and highlights the interaction between eroded volcanic relief and human activity. The inventory classifies the objects in two main geosite categories: (a) volcanic edifices resulting from denudation and inversion of the relief and (b) geodiversity sites connected to land use traditions of the cultural landscape. The assessment evaluates the scientific, cultural/historical, aesthetic and socio-economic values and helps to define priorities in site management. The recently suggested 900 km long, cross-Hungary volcano route starts at the TWR and involves additional 50 planned stations all along the country. They represent various volcanological phenomena from silicic ignimbrite sheets through andesitic stratocones to basaltic volcanic fields. These meet significant historic, cultural, gastronomic tourism attractions to support the promotion of volcanic geoheritage.

57	Keywords separated by ' - '	Volcanic geoheritage - UNESCO cultural heritage - Geosite inventory and assessment - Geotourism - Thematic route
58	Foot note information	

Volcanic Geoheritage and Geotourism Perspectives in Hungary: a Case of an UNESCO World Heritage Site, Tokaj Wine Region Historic Cultural Landscape, Hungary

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Abstract In protected areas (e.g. geoparks, UNESCO sites), the identification of the different aspects of geoheritage site values is part of a holistic concept of protection, education and sustainable development. In the past years, significant progress has been achieved in the volcano tourism in Hungary as shown by the acceptance of two geoparks as members of Global Geoparks Network. They are the Bakony–Balaton Geopark and the Novohrad–Nograd Geopark, which involves also the old village of Hollókő UNESCO cultural heritage site. These geoparks as well as the recently (2013) opened Kemenes Volcano Park used primarily the volcanological natural values in their application, and these play still an important role to attract the visitors. The Tokaj Wine Region (TWR) Historic Cultural Landscape (inscribed on the World Heritage List in 2002 as a cultural site) is also characterized by high geodiversity due to complex volcanic settings (andesite–dacite composite cones, silicic pyroclastites, lava domes, hydrothermal activity) and specialized viticultural land use of

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Keywords Volcanic geoheritage · UNESCO cultural heritage · Geosite inventory and assessment · Geotourism · Thematic route

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Introduction

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Volcanic landscapes are increasingly recognized as areas, which require protection and geoconservation as having unique geoscientific values and offering ideal sites to enhance tourism (Joyce 2009; Erfurt-Cooper and Cooper 2010; Moufti and

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61 Németh 2013; Erfurt-Cooper 2014; Moufti et al. 2014).
 62 Presently, annually, over 150 million people are visiting volca- 114
 63 nic areas worldwide, demonstrating the touristic potential of 115
 64 such geosites (Erfurt-Cooper 2011). Spectacular volcanic 116
 65 features define unique geoheritage, and the link between geologi- 117
 66 cal knowledge and tourist industry led to the formation of the 118
 67 geopark concept in Germany in the late 1990s (Gerolstein, 119
 68 Vulkaneifel, Frey et al. 2006) The geoparks are well-defined 120
 69 territories where sites and landscapes of international geological 121
 70 significance are managed with a holistic concept of protection, 122
 Q3 71 education and sustainable development (Brilha 2016, 123
 72 <http://www.unesco.org>). The UNESCO Global Geopark 124
 73 Network (GGN) uses its geological heritage, in connection with 125
 74 all other aspects of the area's natural and cultural heritage, to 126
 75 enhance awareness and understanding of key issues facing soci- 127
 76 ety (<http://www.unesco.org>, www.globalgeopark.org, Frey 128
 77 et al. 2006). The visitor centres with interactive exhibition 129
 78 could greatly help to attract people how volcanoes work and 130
 79 could have a key role to enhance tourism and transfer money to 131
 80 local economy (e.g. Volcania in France; Cayla 2014). 132

81 The IAVCEI (International Association of Volcanology 133
 82 and Chemistry of the Earth's Interior) Commission on 134
 83 Volcano Geoheritage and Protected Volcanic Landscapes 135
 84 (VGPL) was established in 2015 to help delivering the scienti- 136
 85 fic knowledge to the management of protected volcanic areas 137
 86 and identifying and communicating the scientific and 138
 87 geotouristic values of volcanic areas. Volcano tourism is get- 139
 88 ting to involve visiting not only active volcanoes but dormant 140
 89 and extinct volcanic regions, as well (Erfurt-Cooper 2014). 141
 90 The ancient, eroded volcanic regions give a different view of 142
 91 the volcanic successions (Cas and Wright 1987) where the 143
 92 primary landforms have been transformed by denudation 144
 93 and tectonic processes. These terrains represent root regions 145
 94 of degraded volcanic cones (e.g. Edinburgh World Heritage 146
 95 City 2011) or exposition of spectacular intrusive forms (e.g. 147
 96 Devil's Tower, WY, USA, Wood 2009). The associated cul- 148
 97 tural landscapes (Þingvellir National Park, Iceland, Þingvellir 149
 98 Commission 2004), the renewable geothermal resources and 150
 99 the spa/wellness tourism (Erfurt-Cooper and Cooper 2010) 151
 100 could help to raise and combine the different touristic motiva- 152
 101 tion and interest. Geotourism has been recognized as a disci- 153
 102 pline within the German geoscientific community since the 154
 103 late 1990s (Frey et al. 2006) which promotes tourism to 155
 104 geosites and enhances conservation of geodiversity to under- 156
 105 stand earth science issues through appreciation and learning 157
 106 (Newsome and Dowling 2010). In this concept, the geological 158
 107 heritage (or geoheritage) and the geosites refer to particular
 108 types and locality of geodiversity elements that have acquired
 109 scientific, cultural/historical and or socio-economic value
 110 (Reynard et al. 2007, 2015; Brilha 2016). The selection of
 111 the sites for geotourism purposes requires careful inventory
 Q4 112 in the first step (Lima et al. 2010; Feuilliet and Sourp 2011).
 113 The further assessment could be carried out from several

perspectives with an emphasis on scientific, cultural and eco-
 nomic parameters of the sites. The results can serve as a basis
 to the identification of geotourism potential and designation of
 management priorities (Kubalíková 2013).

The Carpathian–Pannonian region (CPR) offers a good op-
 portunity to take part in the global volcano tourism since it has
 a wide range of volcanic heritages formed mostly for the last
 20 Myr (Harangi 2014). Recognizing their scientific values,
 two geoparks (Novohrad–Nógrád Geopark in 2010, Bakony–
 Balaton Geopark 2012) and a volcano park (Kemenes Volcano
 Park in 2013) have been established there in the last years and
 further efforts have been made to increase the geotouristic po-
 tential of these sites. However, systematic inventorying of
 geosites is still lacking what would be necessary to establish a
 geoconservation strategy and to promote them for touristic pur-
 poses. Nevertheless, there is still no standardized method in
 inventorying geological heritage and quantifying geodiversity
 (Wimbledon et al. 1995, 1999; Brilha 2002, 2015; Lima et al.
 2010; Ruban 2010; Henriques et al. 2011; Fuertes-Gutierrez
 and Fernandez-Martinez 2012; Bruno et al. 2014; Neches
 2016), which promotes often debate about the ranking and val-
 uing geosites and geoparks (e.g. Ruban 2016; Warowna et al.
 2016). Here, we provide a brief summary about the volcano
 touristic potential of Hungary with the recently proposed plan
 of the Pannonian Volcano Route (PVR; Harangi et al. 2015),
 which would start in the Tokaj Mts., north-east part of the CPR.
 The Tokaj Mts. is known as the area of the Tokaj wine region, a
 historic cultural landscape inscribed within the World Heritage
 List (World Heritage Committee 2002). On the other hand,
 geoheritage does not form an integral part of the destination
 brand. Thus, it is a challenging task how geological heritage
 can be introduced into the tourism market worldwide
 (Edinburgh World Heritage City 2011; Þingvellir Commission
 2004; Hroncek 2015). It is important here, since Tokaj Mts. is
 one of the regions, where the actual link between the soil
 formed on volcanic rocks and their influence on the wine vari-
 eties has been already proved; hence, the scientific info is avail-
 able to be incorporated to the geotouristic programs. However,
 in order to integrate the geoheritage phenomena as touristic
 attraction, first, it is necessary to conduct a careful inventory
 and assessment of the geological and geomorphological values
 integrating them with the mining heritage, manufactory tradi-
 tions and viticulture related objects. This first systematic eval-
 uation of geosites in addition to a few further localities along the
 planned volcano route could help to the realization of the plan.

Volcano Tourism Perspectives in the Carpathian–Pannonian Region

The Carpathian–Pannonian region (CPR, Fig. 1) in eastern-
 central Europe has got a long history of volcanism closely
 associated with the tectonic evolution and formation of the

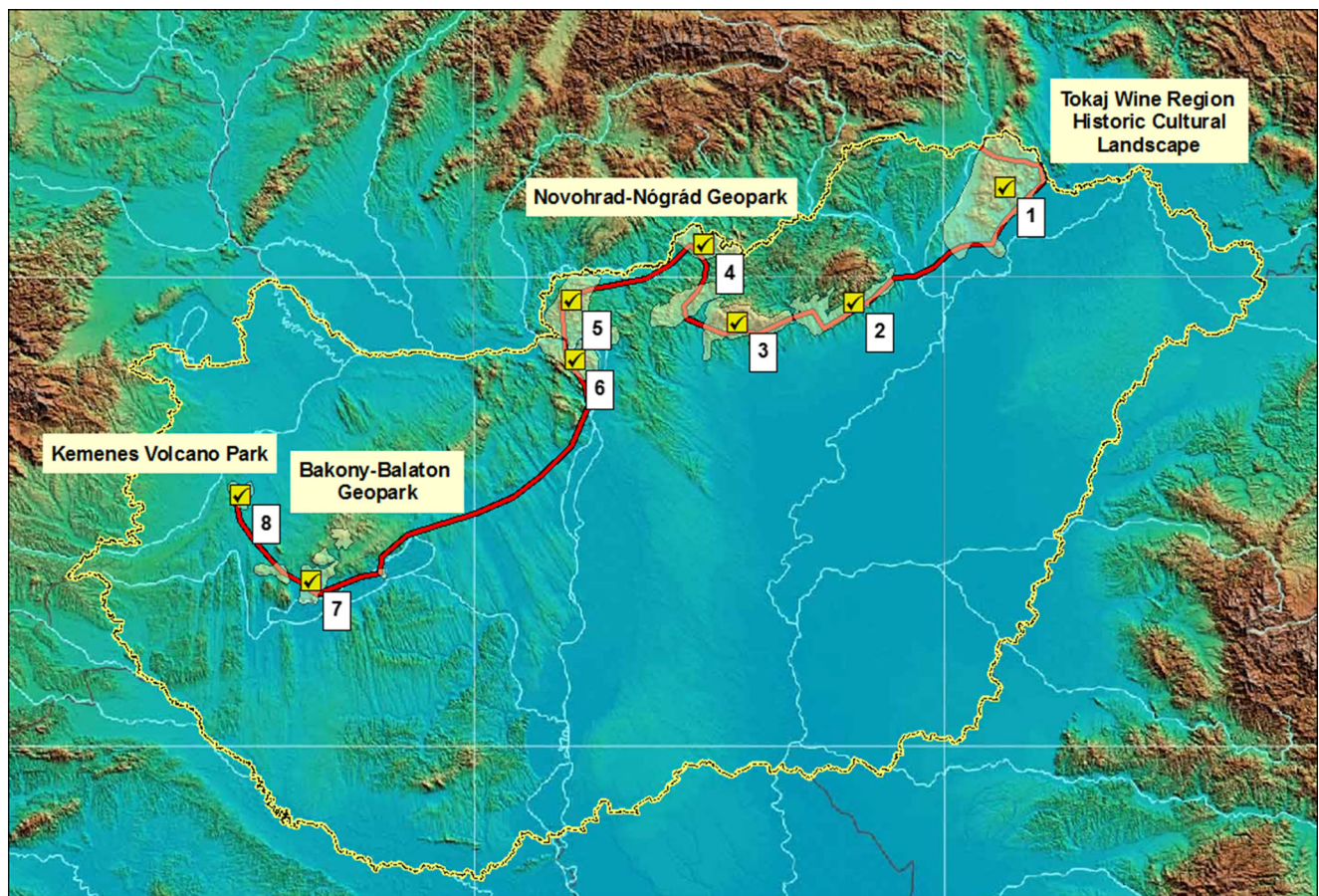


Fig. 1 The Carpathian–Pannonian region and a suggested volcano route with selected stops of volcanic spectacles. 1 Tokaj Mountains (silicic ignimbrites and lava domes, andesite–dacite composite volcanoes), 2 Bükkalja Volcanic Field (silicic ignimbrites), 3 Mátra–Cserehát Mountains (andesite composite volcanoes), 4 Novohrad–Nógrád Geopark (silicic ignimbrites, young basalt shield volcanoes), 5

Börzsöny (andesite–dacite composite volcano and lava domes), 6 Visegrád Mountains (andesite–dacite composite volcano and lava domes) 7 Bakony–Balaton Geopark (younger basalt shield volcanoes, tuff rings, scoria cones) 8 Kemenesalja Volcanic field (remnants of tuff rings, maar, scoria cones). Basemap:http://geophysics.elte.hu/atlas/geodin_atlas.htm

Q5

164 Pannonian basin (Horváth et al. 2006). The Pannonian basin
 165 was formed and evolved between the uprising orogenic chains
 166 of the Alps, Dinarides and Carpathians. It was accompanied
 167 by eruption of various magmas (from basalts to rhyolites)
 168 forming a wide range of volcanic landforms from monogenetic
 169 volcanic fields to polygenetic stratovolcanoes, from maars
 170 to ignimbrite fields (Harangi 2001, 2015; Konecny et al. 2002;
 171 Martin and Németh 2004a; Seghedi et al. 2004, 2005; Harangi
 172 and Lenkey 2007; Lexa et al. 2010; Seghedi and Downes
 173 2011). The extensive volcanism has gradually calmed down
 174 and the volcanic landforms have changed considerably, leaving
 175 the eroded remnants of the volcanic edifices. However, this
 176 transformation provided a unique benefit, i.e. a spectacular
 177 insight into the nature and the structure of the inner parts of
 178 the volcanoes. Thus, a majority of them can be considered as
 179 volcanic landforms resulting from denudation and inversion
 180 of relief (Wood 2009). Presently, they form spectacular
 181 landscape and provide the history of a very active volcanic
 182 history of the region. Furthermore, the volcanic heritage meets
 183 cultural and historical heritages and gastronomic and winery

pleasures, making them ideal places for geoconservation and
 to establish geoparks (Harangi 2014). Similar situation has
 already been recognized in the nearby area of Styria (E-
 Austria), and this led to the establishment of the Steirisches
 Vulkanland (Edelsbacher and Koch 2001; Hoenig 2005,
www.vulkanland.at), a brand that could successfully increase
 the touristic potential of the area and enhanced the economic
 income.

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Geoparks and Volcano Park in Hungary

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In the past years, significant progress has been achieved in the
 volcano tourism in Hungary as shown by the acceptance of
 two geoparks as member of the European and Global
 Geoparks Network and the opening of the Kemenes Volcano
 Park. Both geoparks used primarily the volcanological natural
 values in their application and these play still an important role
 to attract the visitors.

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The Novohrad–Nógrád Geopark (NNG; <http://www.nogradgeopark.eu>, Fig. 1) was established in 2010 and is the

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202 first ‘across border’ geopark situated in northern Hungary and
 203 southern Slovakia. It is rich in volcanic heritage including
 204 pumiceous ash-flow (ignimbrite) deposits, submarine and
 205 subaerial lava flows, one of Europe’s largest coherent lava
 206 plateaus, exposed subvolcanic bodies and volcanic vents,
 207 maars and diatremes, platy and columnar jointed basalts and
 208 andesites including a unique concave-shaped ‘andesite-slide’,
 209 rare almandine garnet in the volcanic rocks and fragments
 210 from the upper mantle. All of these are accessible within a
 211 restricted, small area (1587 km²), what makes it without doubt
 212 an excellent place to gain a unique insight into volcanologic
 213 processes. One of the main attractions is the geosite in
 214 Ipolytarnóc awarded by the European Diploma of Protected
 215 Areas (Fig. 2a). This locality became famous when a petrified
 216 tree of 100 m length and a circumference of eight metres was
 217 discovered (Tuzson 1901). This makes it probably one of the
 218 largest petrified pine trees in the world. In addition, large
 219 number of footprints and remnants of rich mid-Miocene flora
 220 were found in a sandstone buried and preserved by a hot
 221 pumiceous pyroclastic flow deposit (Kordos 1985; Hably
 222 1985; Pálffy et al. 2007). The newly reshaped visitor centre
 223 offers an interesting outline of this geological heritage and
 224 includes a movie theatre with world-class 3D animation,
 225 which introduces visitors to the prehistoric past.

226 The Bakony–Balaton Geopark (BBG; [http://www.
 227 geopark.hu](http://www.geopark.hu), Fig. 1) has an extent of 3244 km² and
 228 comprises 171 different geological formations of various
 229 ages. It became the member of the European Geopark
 230 Network in 2012 and was included into the UNESCO
 231 Global Geoparks Network in 2015. One of the main
 232 geologic attractions of this area is the spectacular basalt
 233 volcanic field formed from 7.9 to 2.6 Ma (Martin and
 234 Németh 2004a). It involves maars, tuff rings and scoria cones
 235 as well as shield volcanic landforms. However, as a result of
 236 strong post-volcanic erosion, only basalt-capped volcanic hills
 237 (butte) have remained, providing the unique landscape such as
 238 seen in the Tapolca basin (Fig. 2b Gadányi 2015). The volca-
 239 noes offer unique insight into the inner structure of the edifices
 240 involving the diatreme facies as well as the various types of
 241 phreatomagmatic and magmatic products and columnar joint-
 242 ed lava lake and lava flow rocks. Combination of the knowl-
 243 edge about the volcanism and the cultural heritage of the area
 244 is nicely presented in two visitor centres, at Tihany (Levander
 245 house) and Hegyestű (Harangi 2014, www.geopark.hu).

246 The two geoparks have, however, different situation back-
 247 grounds. While the area of the BBG is situated in a well-
 248 known region and has a long tradition in tourism with a lot
 249 of innovation, the NNG is a multi-factored disadvantage, pe-
 250 ripheral region as seen in the regional competitiveness data
 251 (e.g. total income from accommodation fee per capita,
 252 Bujdosó and Péntes 2012; Péntes 2013). It is very hard to
 253 find a relationship between geopark establishment and the
 254 number of visitors and their night stays in accommodation

255 facilities in the area (Kršák et al. 2015). The more difficult
 256 access has less touristic experience and needs a significant
 257 effort to introduce their touristic values into the market The
 258 experience from the past years is that existence of unique
 259 geological and volcanological values is not enough to get a
 260 success, but a strong support from the local community is
 261 necessary. Furthermore, motivated and enthusiastic people
 262 are needed, who understand the geopark concept and can
 263 maintain and manage the geopark. The popular training
 264 courses for local people to become geopark guides in the
 265 BBG are a good example how the geopark can be maintained
 266 active, whereas in the NNG, annually, organized interactive
 267 volcano show during the Geopark week and wide selection of
 268 geological and cultural events help people to know more
 269 about the geopark philosophy.

270 The first volcano park (Kemenes Volcano Park;
 271 <http://www.kemenesvulkanpark.hu>, Fig. 1) in eastern-central
 272 Europe was opened at Celldömölk in western Hungary, close
 273 to the borders of Croatia, Slovenia, Austria and Slovakia in
 274 2013. It consists of an open-air volcano playground and vol-
 275 cano path into the 5.5 Ma intensively quarried basaltic Ság
 276 volcano (Harangi and Harangi 1995; Martin and Németh 2004
 277 b). The volcano path (Fig. 2c) with 12 stops reveals the diverse
 278 eruption history (phreatomagmatic, strombolian and hawaiian
 279 as well as effusive volcanic products). At the foot of the Ság
 280 hill, an interactive exhibition was designed in a unique visitor
 281 centre. The exhibition provides an interesting tour in the world
 282 of volcanoes involving the formation of various volcanic
 283 fields of the Carpathian–Pannonian region.

284 A Plan for an Across-Country Volcano Route

285 Volcanic and geological heritage could be a driving role to
 286 open a new way in the tourism and promotes a recovery of
 287 economy in otherwise underdeveloped regions (e.g. Iceland
 288 Geoparks, Ólafsdóttir and Dowling 2014; Banská Stiaavnica
 289 mining heritage, Slovakia, Herčko et al. 2014; Leon
 290 Province, Spain, Fuertes-Gutierrez and Fernandez-Martinez
 291 2010). This can be achieved by a combination of delivering
 292 scientific information with entertainment. In the last year, we
 293 proposed a new way to highlight the value of volcanic regions
 294 of Hungary (Harangi et al. 2015). The idea is based on the
 295 success of thematic trails, such as the popular National Blue
 296 Trail (established in 1938) in Hungary, which was the first
 297 long distance walking route not only in Hungary but in the
 298 whole Europe (Horváth and Lóczy 2015). This helps people to

► **Fig. 2** Stops on the volcano route. **a** Visitor centre of Nature Reserve Ipolytarnóc Fossils geosites, Nógrád–Novohrad geopark (still qualifying for UNESCO World Heritage site). **b** The beautiful volcanic landscape of the Tapolca basin in the Bakony–Balaton Geopark: eroded remnants of various basaltic volcanoes. **c** On the volcano path of Ság Hill, involving all principal types of basaltic volcanic activity. Photos by Szabolcs Harangi



299 recognize the importance of hiking and to have walks regularly
 300 ly in the nature as well as to accomplish the whole route
 301 through the country. The Maria Trail is a pilgrimage across
 302 central Europe from Mariazell (Austria) to Csíksomlyó
 303 (Șumuleu Ciuc; Romania) that helps people to recognize the
 304 religious and cultural heritage during hiking. There is a good
 305 example of such thematic trails also in volcanic areas. The
 306 Deutsche Vulkanstrasse (German Volcano Route;
 307 <http://www.deutsche-vulkanstrasse.com>) was designed in the
 308 Eifel area, Germany, and connects 39 localities to recognize
 309 the wonderland of volcanoes. The planned PVR (Fig. 1) in
 310 Hungary is about 600 km long, crosses the whole country
 311 from east to west and could be part of an even longer,
 312 across-Europe volcano route that would include active and
 313 inactive volcanic regions.

314 The PVR connects the existing geoparks and the volcano
 315 park, emphasizes the role of volcanic activity, which formed
 316 the landscape of the area over the last 20 Myr, and offers
 317 additional recreational activity in several subregions. There
 318 are over 50 planned key stations, where additional shorter
 319 routes help to discover the beauty of the area involving historic,
 320 cultural, mining and gastronomic heritage. Furthermore,
 321 they cover almost all the main volcanological phenomena.
 322 An important task, however, is the transformation of volcanic
 323 heritage to touristic value and thus, a systematic inventory of
 324 geological heritage is crucial. A case study in the Tokaj wine
 325 region, a UNESCO World Heritage Site, is shown in the following
 326 chapters and how the first steps in this work were made. This
 327 is the area, where the PVR starts and provides a challenging
 328 task to investigate how volcanic heritage can be recognized in
 329 a historic cultural landscape awarded as a UNESCO World
 330 Heritage Site.

331 Tokaj Wine Region UNESCO World Heritage Site

332 Cultural sites are far better represented by the World Heritage
 333 Convention (Fig. 3a) than natural ones (802 cultural, 197 natural
 334 and 32 mixed sites in 2016). Many of them, however, contain
 335 also remarkable volcanic geoheritage values and thus are categorized
 336 as mixed sites (Cappadocia, Tongariro National Park), while in other
 337 cases, primarily, the cultural aspects are emphasized (e.g. Þingvellir
 338 National Park, Iceland, Pompei, Italy; Fujisan, Japan; Banská
 339 Štiavnica, Slovakia and Tokaj wine region, Hungary). The Tokaj
 340 Wine Region (TWR) Historic Cultural Landscape was the World's
 341 first delimited wine region (since 1737) and demonstrates the
 342 long tradition of wine production covering 27 settlements and
 343 ca 90,000 ha (Fig. 3b). It is famous of the special sweet wines
 344 (called 'aszú' in Hungarian or Tokay, worldwide) made from
 345 grapes affected by noble rot (*Botrytis cinerea*), a style of wine
 346 which has a long history in this region. The special microclimatic
 347 condition in the eroded volcanic slopes and the
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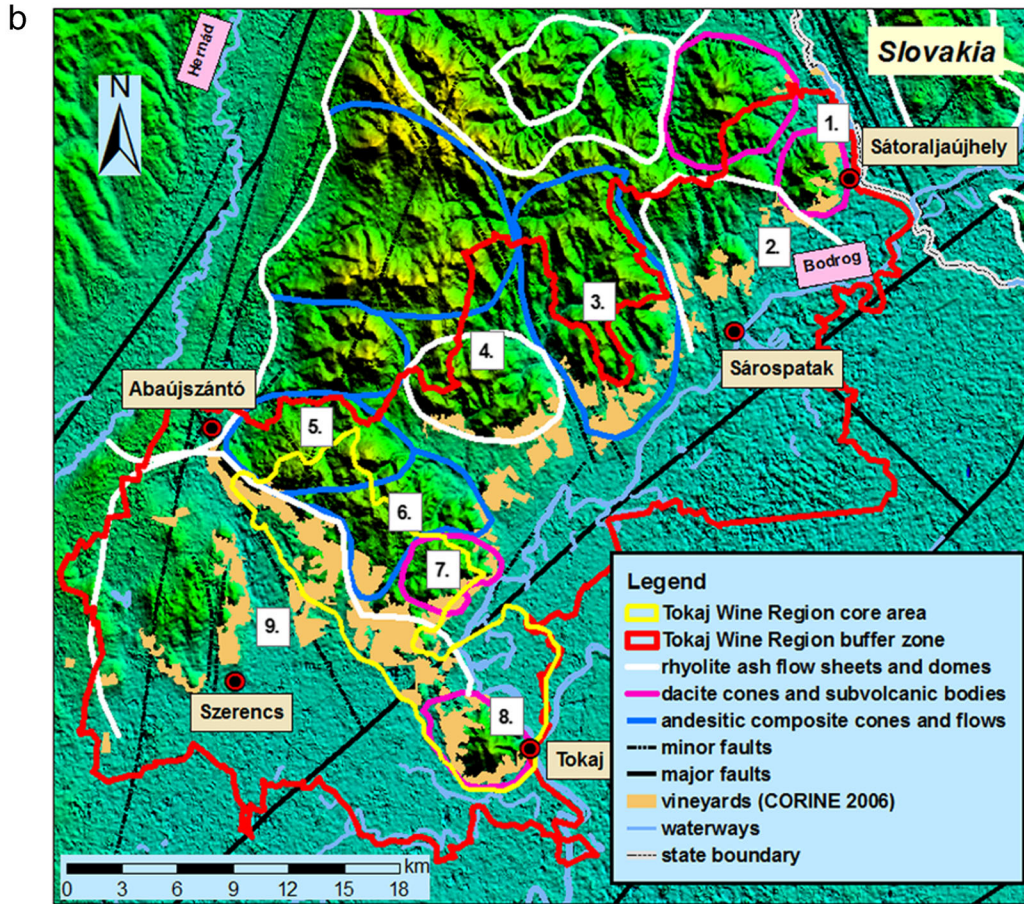
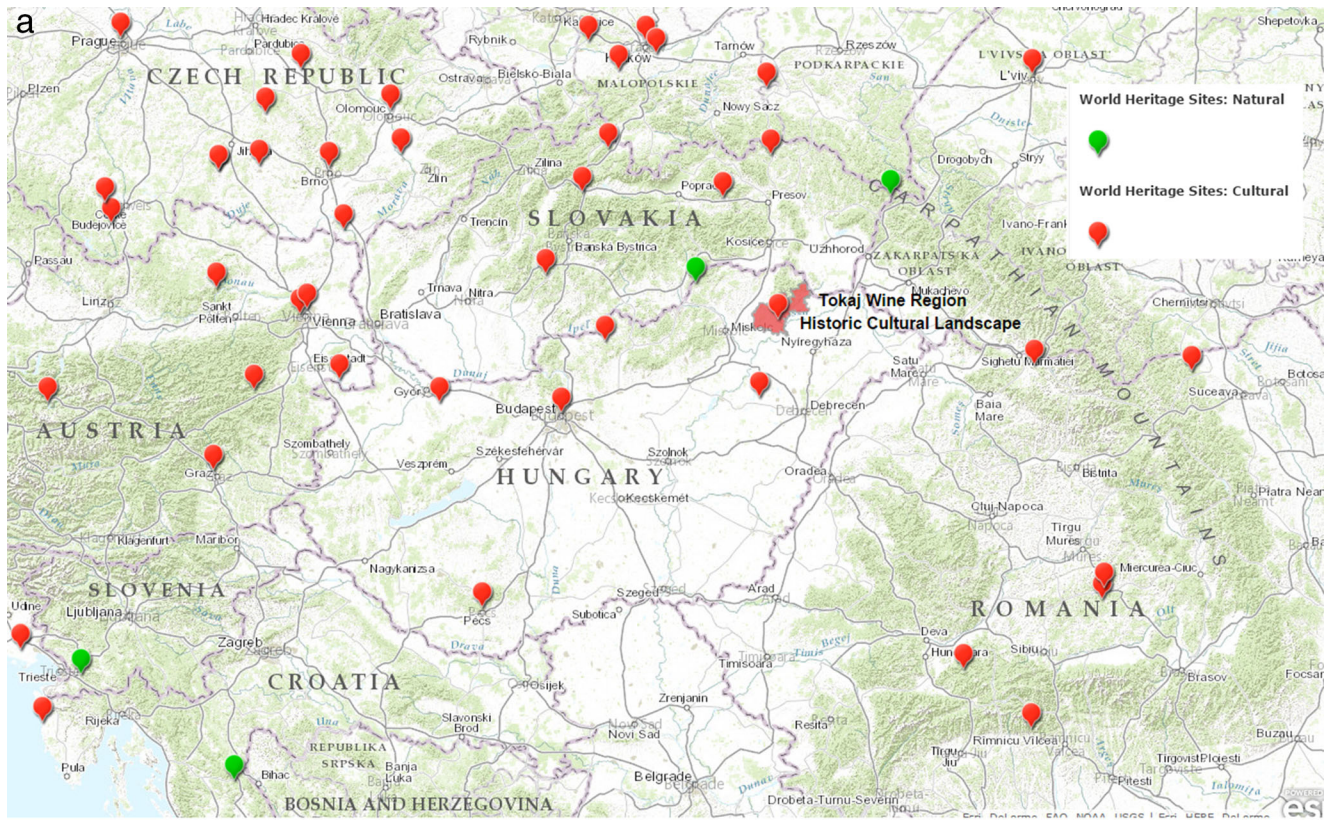
surrounding wetlands gives an ideal place to cultivate various
 349 grapes, primarily Furmint, the most important grape in the
 350 production of the Aszú wines. The geology behind the grape
 351 production is, however, less known in spite of its importance
 352 in viticulture. There are even more potential in the geological
 353 heritage, as demonstrated by the high geodiversity values due
 354 to its complex geological setting, by the long mining and
 355 manufacturing activities and also by the role in the early history
 356 of geosciences. The uniqueness of many geomorphological
 357 and geological sites has been already recognized and
 358 some of them have been already protected (UNESCO convention,
 359 national nature conservation area, Natura 2000). 360

361 Geology–Geomorphology

The TWR is the UNESCO World Heritage part of the Tokaj–
 362 Slanske Vrchy Mountains which is a north-south trending
 363 volcanic chain, extending over 100 km through the
 364 Hungarian–Slovakian border (Fig. 3b). This volcanism was
 365 part of the extensive Miocene to Quaternary calc-alkaline
 366 andesitic–dacitic volcanic activity of the Carpathian–Pannonian
 367 region (Harangi 2001; Konecny et al. 2002; Seghedi et al.
 368 2004, 2005; Harangi and Lenkey 2007; Lexa et al. 2010).
 369 The Proterozoic to Mesozoic metamorphic and carbonate
 370 basement was subsided and formed a north-south-oriented
 371 graben-like structure hosting the volcanic sequences (Molnár
 372 et al. 1999; Gyarmati and Szepesi 2007; Zelenka et al. 2012).
 373 The available K/Ar radiometric ages (Pécskay et al. 1987,
 374 1989, 1995; Pécskay and Molnár 2002) suggest that this
 375 geochemically bimodal, andesitic–rhyolitic volcanism took place
 376 between 15 and 10 Ma. The mid-Miocene extensional tectonic
 377 process was accompanied with marine transgression; thus, the
 378 thick Badenian silicic (ash-flow tuffs) and andesitic volcanic
 379 formations were accumulated in submarine environment and
 380 this was followed by mostly subaerial volcanism. The wide
 381 range of eruption styles resulted in primary volcanic land-
 382 forms such as caldera-related silicic ignimbrite sheets and
 383 andesitic–dacitic composite volcanoes as well as dacitic to
 384 rhyolitic lava dome extrusions. This kind of volcanic activity
 385 could resemble that of the present-state Kagoshima graben
 386

Fig. 3 a Topographic setting of Tokaj Wine Region Historic Cultural
 Landscapes and UNESCO World Heritage Sites of Carpathian–
 Pannonian region with the overall domination of cultural sites (made
 using public UNESCO database of Arctic online: <http://www.arcgis.com/home/webmap/viewer.html>). b Main volcanic geomorphotypes of
 the Tokaj Wine Region Historic Cultural Landscape with vineyards
 (based on Gyarmati and Szepesi 2007, Karátson 2007, Zelenka et al.
 2012). Digital elevation model: SRTM DEM database, vineyards:
 (CORINE Land Cover 2006 seamless vector data 2016). Volcanic
 geomorphotypes: a, andesite composite cones and flows, 3. Nagy
 Papaj–Fekete Hills, 5. Szokolya–Molyvás group, 6. Hollós–Szar
 Hills dacite composite cones, 1. Sátor Hills (Sátoraljaújhely), 7. Cigány
 Hill, 8. Tokaj Hill, silicic pyroclastites and lava dome complexes, 2.
 Megyer–Király Hills, 4. Szokolya–Nagy páca group, 9. Szerencs caldera

Geoheritage



387 (Aramaki 1984) and Taupo zone (Cole 1990; Wilson et al.
388 1995). Post-volcanic activity reached a peak in the
389 Sarmatian–Pannonian and resulted in shallow-level low-
390 sulphidation type epithermal ore mineralization (Molnár
391 1993; Molnár et al. 1999; Bajnóczi et al. 2000). The volcanic
392 landscape has been heavily modified during the subsequent
393 erosion, and even the root zones of the volcanic structures
394 including the mineralized regions (Pécskay and Molnár
395 2002), necks and the shallow laccolithic intrusions have been
396 exposed. The gentle shape of the basins and valleys and the
397 productive soil on the volcanic basement provided an ideal
398 condition for the human settlements.

399 Classification of volcanic landforms was initially based on
400 types of activities, magmas and erupted products (Macdonald
401 1972), whereas more recent classification schemes consider
402 also geomorphologic scale (e.g. constructional vs. erosional
403 origin, mono- vs. polygenetic development), types of activity,
404 and type and volume of magma and erupted material (Thouret
405 1999, 2004). This latter approach was used by Lexa et al.
406 (2010), who summarized the features of the volcanic edifices
407 of the Carpathian–Pannonian region. Wood (2009) listed the
408 main volcanic landforms based on the volcanic geomorphol-
409 ogy review by Thouret (2004) and classified them into five
410 major types in World Heritage properties. In this context, the
411 TWR could belong to the ‘Volcanic landforms resulting from
412 denudation and inversion of relief’, what was represented in
413 the report only by two examples, i.e. the volcanic landscape of
414 Edinburgh and the Air and Ténéré Natural Reserves, as
415 inverted small-scale forms and roots of palaeovolcano, respec-
416 tively. The volcanomorphologic features of the TWR fit well
417 with the subcategory ‘eroded cone, eroded pyroclastic flow
418 deposit and sheet’ and thus could represent it on the World
419 Heritage volcano list.

420 Early History of Geosciences and the Role of the TWR

421 The significant value of the volcanic geoheritage of the TWR
422 is underlined by the role of its volcanic formation in the his-
423 tory of the earth sciences. Recognition of the volcanic forma-
424 tions in Hungary and particularly in the Tokaj region by the
425 pioneering geologists goes back to the eighteenth century,
Q7 426 right in the neptunist–plutonist controversy (Rózsa 2003).
427 Fichtel (1791, 1794) described the volcanic origin of the
428 mountains first and defined the widespread perlites as ‘volca-
429 nic zeolite’. In contrast, Esmark (1798) as a student of the
430 Neptunist school led by A.G. Werner denied the volcanic or-
431 igin of these rocks based on his tour in Hungary in 1794,
432 claiming that ‘these all are not of volcanic but neptunic origin’
433 and not only the pumices found in the Tokaj Mts but also those
434 coming from Lipari ‘probably all kinds of real pumice are of
Q8 435 neptunic origin’. Townson (1797) also studied the peculiar
436 perlites in the Tokaj Mts. and agreed with Fichtel, concerning
437 the origin of this formation, stating by Linneus words where

pumice can be found in great quantity, once active volcanoes 438
439 existed, although, they have been extinct and forgotten for a
440 long time’. He also recognized the great similarity between
441 perlites and the marekanites (obsidian balls aka Apache tears)
442 found in Kamchatka. As regarding the main rock types of the
443 Tokaj Mts, Beudant (1818) followed the Haüy’s trachyte ter- 443Q9
444 minology to classify the whole eruptive sequence (e.g. tra-
445 chyte porphyre). The rhyolite term was first used by
446 Richthofen (1860) based on textural and geochemical obser-
447 vations and provided detailed description of the glassy and
448 microcrystalline textural varieties with special attention to
449 the spherulites and lithophysae. Szabó, the most famous pe-
450 trologists in Hungary in the nineteenth century, proposed that
451 the TWR could be regarded as a rhyolite district, and he recog-
452 nized the hydration process of the obsidian to form perlite
453 (Szabó 1866). He published a detailed book in four languages
454 with the earliest geological map (Szabó and Török 1867;
455 Fig. 4) of the viticulture and geology of the TWR. All of these
456 historic elements can be build up into the geoeducational pos-
457 sibilities of the TWR geoheritage to show how earth sciences
458 evolved and how the TWR had a role in it.

459 Mining and Manufactory

The long period of volcanism and the subsequent hydrother- 460
461 mal activity produced a wide range of potential raw materials
462 and mineral resources. In the TWR, 13 special raw materials
463 (including quartzite, kaolinite, bentonite and perlite) reported
464 from 47 localities (Mátyás 2005, Fig. 5). The exploitation of
465 these materials (rhyolite tuffs and rhyolite, perlite, obsidian
466 lavas) has also a long tradition. At different levels of social
467 and technical development, more and more raw materials
468 were placed in the centre of interest starting from the early
469 Palaeolithic obsidians. The obsidian was derived from the 469Q10
470 local rhyolitic perlitic lava domes and pyroclastic deposits,
471 and it was used even by Palaeolithic and Neolithic manufac-
472 tures and was incorporated in the far-reaching trades (T Biró 472Q11
473 1984, 2002; Rózsa et al. 2006; Hovorka and Illasova 2010;
474 Mester and Rác 2010). The major medieval gold–silver min-
475 ing activity (from the twelfth to nineteenth century), what was
476 the most significant in Europe at that time, occurred mostly
477 outside of TWR (around Telkibánya), but smaller excavation
478 pits and underground adits can be found also within the TWR,
479 north of the Sátor Hill area (Sátoraljaújhely, Rudabányácska).
480 Silicic pyroclastic rocks have the widest areal distribution at
481 the TWR and have been utilized as a natural building stone for
482 several centuries as demonstrated by large numbers of aban-
483 doned quarries (e.g. Mád, Sárospatak, Erdőbénye, Fig. 5).
484 Data on ancient quarries were registered in the early domestic
485 geological mining inventory (Schafarzik 1904) and also in
486 recent databases (Atlas of European Millstone quarries,
487 Historic Quarries, Hungarian Mineral Occurrences). The silic-
488 ified zones of the tuffs were particularly suitable for high-

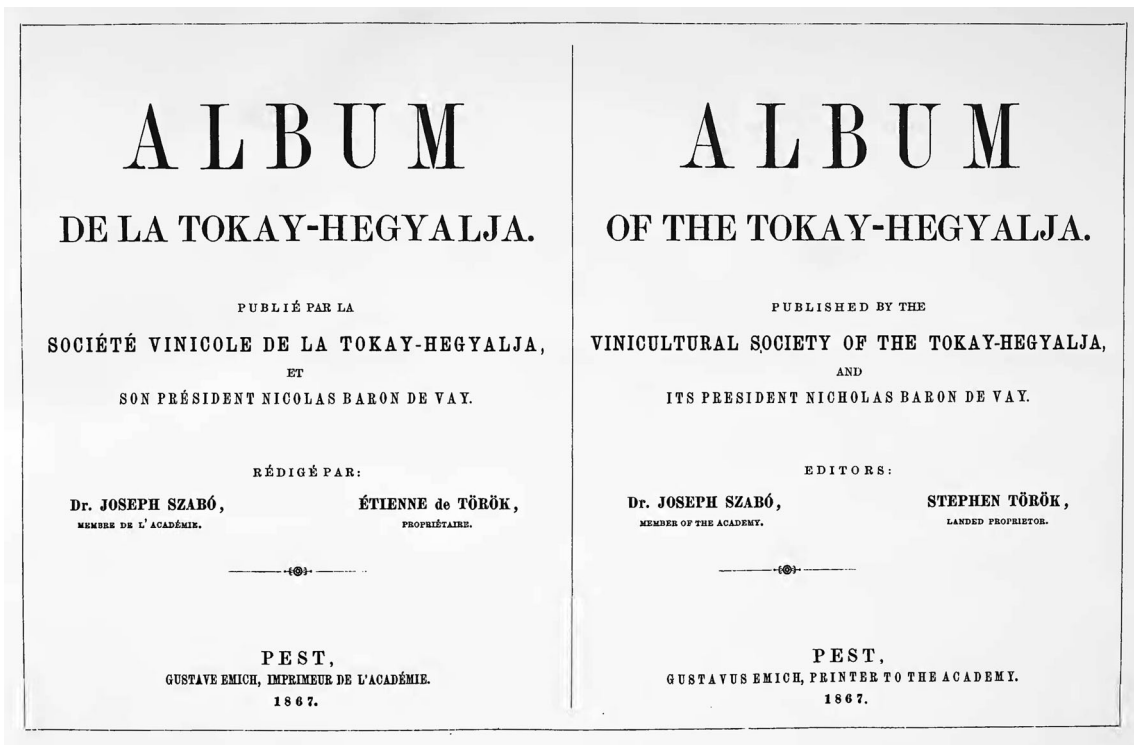
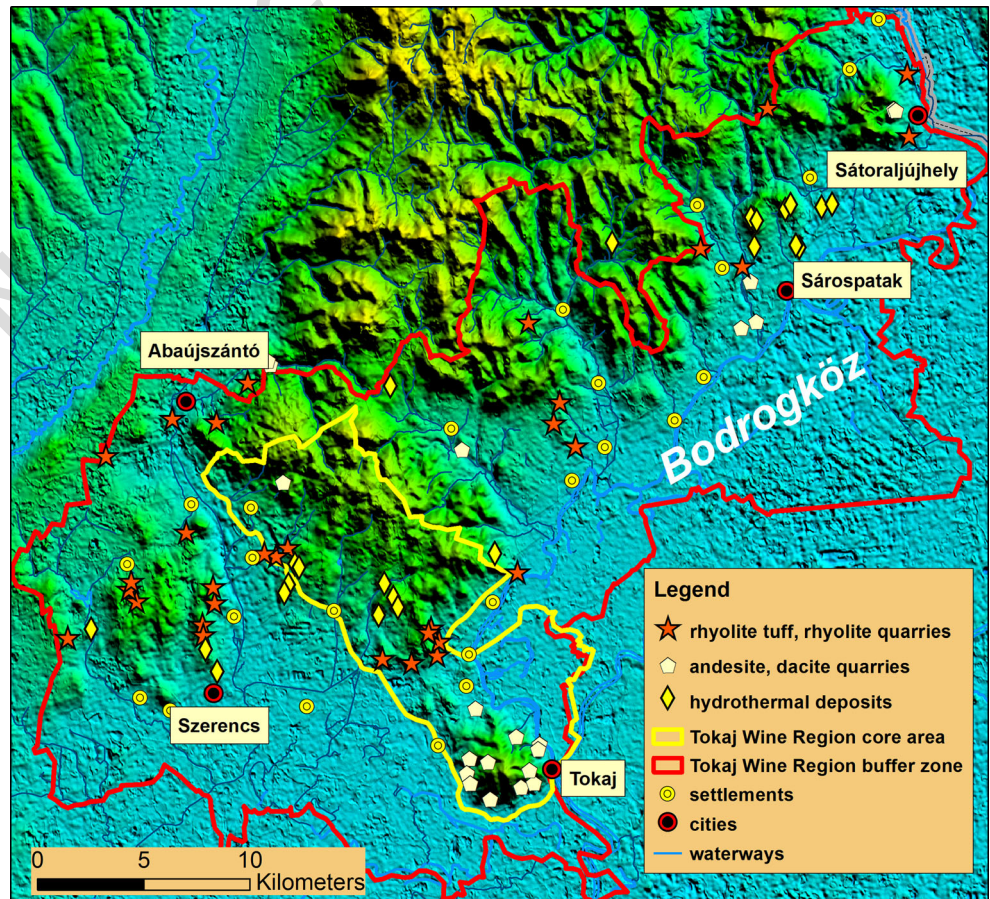


Fig. 4 English and French language cover of Album of Tokay Hegyalja published in four languages (Szabó and Török 1867) containing the first geology and viticulture map of the Tokaj wine region

Fig. 5 Map and classification of quarry sites at Tokaj Wine Region Historic Cultural Landscape as potential geoheritage objects



489 quality millstones (e.g. Megyer Hill, Rátka, Szepesi and Ésik
 490 2015). After the first mentioning from the fifteenth century,
 491 quartzite was a popular and precious product over six centu-
 492 raries. The industry was supported by the grindstone demand of
 493 gold–silver mining at Telkibánya. The quality of the stones
 494 had earned a reputation for Sárospatak, winning the first order
 495 medal’ of 1862 World Expo in London. The glass industry
 496 utilized the loose perlite materials of the silicic lava domes.

497 This regional industrial activity stimulated the develop-
 498 ment of clay mineral (kaolinite, bentonite) quarrying and ce-
 499 ramic industry from the 1800s (Mád, Sárospatak). Pottery, tile
 500 stove and pipe factories (famous black pipe’) were also oper-
 501 ated (Mátyás 2005). The large variety of dish forms (bowls,
 502 plates, jars, food containers, jugs) was widespread in the vil-
 503 lages of TWR, Bodrogköz (Fig. 5). The diatomite of
 504 Erdőbénye was an important chemical industry material. The
 505 connected fossils and leaves imprint enriched many mineral
 506 collections. The high-quality andesite and dacite as road
 507 building stones have been still quarried (Tokaj Hill, Tállya
 508 Sárospatak). In summary, the TWR yields a nice example
 509 about the long interaction between society and environment
 510 and gives a peculiar connection between geological and min-
 511 ing heritage. This can be integrated into the geoeucational
 512 and touristic potential of the area.

513 **Land Use**

514 Since the viticulture is very sensitive to the changes of the
 515 economic environment (Novák et al. 2014), serious changes
 516 in extent of vineyards were registered during the last centuries.
 517 The beginning goes back supposable to the Iron Age, but it
 518 became to the most characteristic land use during the late
 519 medieval age (Novák and Incze 2014). The golden age of
 520 the Tokaj wine region was in the late seventeenth century
 521 and early eighteenth century, when the plantations reached
 522 their maximal extent. Decreasing in a vineyard area was first
 523 the result of disadvantageous market and export policy of
 524 Hungarian wines because it was the highest taxed good within
 525 the Habsburg Monarchy in the early nineteenth century
 526 (Komlos 1983). Further significant decrease was due to the
 527 Phylloxera epidemic between 1885 and 1895 that destroyed
 528 almost two third of the plantations (Nyizsalovszki and Fórián
 529 2007). The reconstruction in lack of investment and loss of
 530 markets during the first decades of twentieth century was very
 531 slow, and the extent of vineyards has never reached the level
 532 before the disaster. As a consequence of collectivization and
 533 mechanization of the cultivation after the World War II, the
 534 vineyards shifted to lower and less steep slopes (Novák and
 535 Incze 2014). Nevertheless, 18 land cover categories can be
 536 found within the wine region based on the CORINE
 537 CLC100 land cover classification ([http://www.eea.europa.
 538 eu/data-and-maps/data/clc-2006-vector-data-version](http://www.eea.europa.eu/data-and-maps/data/clc-2006-vector-data-version)). The
 539 highest extent is reached by croplands, which cover 29% of

the whole area. The second most frequent land cover category
 is forests, which totally share almost 25% of the region.
 Managed and degraded grasslands including succession
 areas developed after vineyard abandonments cover totally
 13%. Vineyards (Fig. 3b) cover more than 10% of the
 landscape; all of the other categories share extension less
 5%. In the last decades, between 1989 and 2010, 2173 ha
 vineyards (29% of vineyards in 1989) become fallow.
 During the last 25 years, the slopes with 5–12 and 12–17%,
 exposure with S, SE, SW, and W and elevation between 100
 and 200 m were the most preferred topographies in the wine
 plantation.

Identification of Geosites and Geodiversity Sites

Geodiversity can be defined basically as the natural range
 (diversity) of geological (rocks, minerals, fossils), geomor-
 phological (land form, physical processes) and soil features
 including their assemblages, relationships, properties, inter-
 pretations and systems (Gray 2004). There are different con-
 cepts and methodologies concerning recognition of geological
 heritage and inventorying geosites and geodiversity (Reynard
 et al. 2007, 2015; Gray 2008; Lima et al. 2010; Pereira and
 Pereira 2010; Wimbledon 2011; Fuertes-Gutierrez and
 Fernandez-Martinez 2012; Bruno et al. 2014; Brilha 2015).
 This lead Brilha (2016) to propose a conceptual framework
 of geodiversity, geoheritage and geoconservation and set a
 guideline for inventory and assessment of *geological and
 geodiversity sites*. Geoheritage involves geosites and
 geodiversity elements (minerals, fossils, rocks) that have sig-
 nificant scientific value. The selection should be based on four
 criteria: representativeness, integrity, rarity and the scientific
 knowledge. The same framework is established for the geo-
 morphological heritage, which involves geomorphosites
 (Panizza 2001; Pereira and Pereira 2010; Coratza et al. 2011;
 Reynard et al. 2007, 2015). For a volcanic region, both ap-
 proach can be applied, i.e. recognizing the morphological el-
 ements provided by a volcanic landscape and selecting key
 localities, which show scientifically valuable volcanic features
 (e.g. Moufti and Németh 2013; Moufti et al. 2013a, 2013b).
 Geosites or geomorphosites are defined as the smallest units in
 the hierarchical system of geoheritage (Reynard et al. 2007,
 2015; Pereira and Pereira 2010), although higher units such as
 geotope (group of geosites; Gonggrijp 1997) and precinct
 (collective group of geotopes; used, e.g. in the Kanawinka
 geopark, Australia and in Saudi Arabia; Moufti and Németh
 2013; Moufti et al. 2013a) have been also used.

In the TWR, the major aim of the preliminary inventory
 and assessment was to identify the potential geodiversity ob-
 jects and raise the geoconservation, the public and the
 geotouristic sector awareness about these natural attractions.
 The conceptual framework of geosites and geodiversity sites

590 (Brilha 2016) was used as a methodological guideline during
 591 the inventory of TWR geoheritage. The volcanological–geo-
 592 morphological features were clustered together using the pre-
 593 cinct concept (Moufti and Németh 2013; Moufti et al. 2013a,
 594 2013b). The volcanic landscape of the TWR can be classified
 595 as ‘Volcanic landforms resulting from denudation and inver-
 596 sion of relief’ based on a geomorphological point of view and
 597 can be subdivided into subgroups such as eroded larger com-
 598 posite cones and smaller volcanic bodies based on regional
 599 palaeovolcanic reconstructions (Gyarmati and Szepesi 2007;
 600 Karátson 2007; Lexa et al. 2010; Zelenka et al. 2012).
 601 However, their recognition is not easy and therefore, it seems
 602 to be better to define the notable geological sites based on their
 603 geological features. In the TWR, we defined three precincts
 604 (Table 1, Fig. 3b):

- 605 1. Silicic lava dome/flow and pyroclastic deposit precinct
- 606 2. Andesite and dacite cones and subvolcanic body
607 Precinct
- 608 3. Hydrothermal deposit precinct

609 Each precinct comprises distinct geotopes and geosites.
 610 One of the most prominent geotope is the Tokaj Hill
 611 (Fig. 6a), what is a dacitic composite volcanic edifice. It in-
 612 volves various geosites, such as dacitic lava dome rocks show-
 613 ing fine magma mixing features (Szabó 1894; Rózsa 1994)
 614 and a fine rhyolite–perlite occurrence.

615 In the TWR, there is a long tradition of collection of min-
 616 erals and a wide range of specific mineral species (particularly
 617 different types of microcrystalline quartz polymorphs, such as
 618 chalcedonies, opals, jaspers, petrified woods) are exhibited in
 619 local museums. They can be classified as *ex situ* geoheritage
 620 elements based on Brilha’s (2015) system.

621 In addition to the scientifically important geosites, the
 622 traditional land use of cultural landscape generates sites that
 623 do not have particular scientific values but significant record
 624 of human impact on landscape (terrace wall, wine cellars).
 625 Brilha (2015) defined these objects as *geodiversity sites*. In
 626 the TWR, the geology meets culture and history and has a
 627 thousand year history of human activity. The utilization of
 628 the geodiversity started from obsidian and quartzite tools of
 629 the Palaeo and Neolithic cultures (T Biró 1984, 2002;
 630 Mester and Rácz 2010) to the characteristic landscape shap-
 631 ing objects of grape cultivation and wine-making traditions.
 632 The identified geodiversity attributes involve the various
 633 wine cellars, the historic and recent mining activities and
 634 the dry-built terrace walls which are also important resources
 635 for education and tourism. The scientifically important
 636 geoheritage and the geodiversity sites altogether could be
 637 involved into the geoconservation strategy of the TWR and
 638 can be introduced in the educational and touristic develop-
 639 ment. Furthermore, they could be important elements to

641 establish a geopark in the TWR and the northern continua-
 642 tion of the Tokaj Mts.

643 Following the long (ca 5 Myr) volcanism, hydrothermal
 644 activity resulted in epithermal mineralization (e.g. gold and
 645 silver ores at Rudabányácska) and formed various alteration
 646 zones and products. Among these, the TWR is famous of the
 647 wide selection of microcrystalline quartz polymorphs (e.g.
 648 Erdőhorváti, Tolcsva), diatomite and zeolites (Mád,
 649 Erdőbénye area), geyserite cones (Bot-kő, Sárospatak, Árpád
 650 Hill) and petrified woods (Megyaszó). Recognition of these
 651 geodiversity elements could help the appropriate
 652 geoconservation of these localities and incorporation of the
 653 local mineral museums into the geoheritage elements. Some
 654 of them are already protected (UNESCO convention, national
 655 nature conservation area, Natura 2000) which helps in raising
 656 public awareness.

657 One of the specialities of the TWR is the close connection
 658 between geology, manufacturing and cultural landscape use.
 659 They are classified as various geodiversity sites. Quarrying
 660 has a long tradition in the TWR which follows the regional
 661 raw material interest and manufacture development through
 662 centuries. They are classified (Fig. 5) based on the quarried
 663 material, such as andesite–dacite (rubblestone), rhyolite tuff—
 664 rhyolite (building and decorative stone) and hydrothermal de-
 665 posits—altered pyroclastites (millstone—Fig. 6e, bentonite–
 666 montmorillonite clays) quarries. The mining activity apart
 667 from some rubblestone quarries was ceased in the last century
 668 due to the economic problems and depleting stocks. The quar-
 669 rying has left abandoned surfaces with excavated (walls, mine
 670 yards, pits) and accumulated forms (waste dumps) due to slow
 671 re-vegetation. Wine cellars, especially the multi-line World
 672 Heritage objects (e.g. Hercegkút, Fig. 8), are characteristic
 673 landscape shaping objects of the grape cultivation and wine-
 674 making traditions. The lithological conditions were appropri-
 675 ate to excavate in various length, predominantly into silicic
 676 pyroclastic rocks (Frisnyák 2012) and less frequently in
 677 Pleistocene loess (Tokaj Hill). The architecture, layout and
 678 length define the major cellar types (Müller 2013). The most
 679 popular is the simple-carved cellar, the larger ones deepen
 680 form above and closed with vault. The hall cellars previously
 681 operated as underground pyroclastite mines (rock dust). The
 682 layout (Fig. 6d) defines the simple one entry, parallel entry,
 683 main axis branched and larger hall-like arrangements
 684 (Frisnyák 2012). The most important cultural heritage object
 685 is the Ungvári wine cellar (Sátorajjáuhely, Fig. 8) where 27
 686 individual cellars were joined horizontally and vertically to
 687 form 14–16 km long underground attraction. The cellar walls
 688 are often covered by noble rote and sometimes reveal a
 689 remarkable view of pyroclastic sedimentation structures
 690 (Fig. 6g) and a fragmentation pattern of perlitic lava domes.

691 The traditional TWR landscape demonstrates the long tradi-
 692 tions of viticulture with dry-built terrace walls on the gentle
 693 volcanic slopes (Fig. 6h) defining a special land use pattern.

Q15 t1.1 Table 1 Example of a geosite inventory sheet, Megyer Hill old millstone quarry (Fig. 6e, based on Fassoulas et al. 2012; Feuilliet and Sourp 2011)

t1.2	Geomorphosite	Geology	Mining and manufactory	Other cultural landscape features	Potential geosites	Geoheritage infrastructure
t1.3	Volcanic edifices: resulting from denudation and inversion of relief					
t1.4	Silicic lava dome/flow and pyroclastic deposit precinct					
t1.5	Király–Megyer Hills (Sárospatak)	Eroded multi-phase submarine to subaerial ash-flow succession with strong hydrothermal alteration	Millstone, clay minerals—pottery, alunite, building stone	Old millstone quarry with lake, vineyards	Quarries	Nature trail
t1.6	Szokolya rhyolite lava dome complex (Erdőbénye)	Intensive plinian and ash-flow pyroclastic activity and multi-phase lava dome extrusion (11.0 Ma, obsidian, perlite, rhyolite)	Palaeolithic obsidian resources, welded tuff (Kispáca)	Vineyards	Rare outcrops, quarry	–
t1.7	Sátor–Krakó Hills (Abaújszántó)	Erosion remnant of 11.3 Ma rhyolite flow developed on older lava dome and ash-flow tuff sequence	Rhyolite tuff (rock dust)	Dry-built terrace walls traditional wine cellars	Rhyolite tuff quarry, panoramic viewpoints	Hiking routes
t1.8	Kakas Hill	12.8 Ma thick slightly silicified ash-flow tuff sequence	Most typical cultural landscape building stones	Vineyards, dry-built terrace walls	Operating quarry	–
t1.9	Király Hill (Mád)	11.7 Ma hydrothermally altered rhyolite lava dome, reddish palaeosoil (nyirok)	Kaolinite, montmorillonite, quartzite	Dry-built terrace walls	Quarry	Nature trail
t1.10	Szerencs Hills lava domes	Hydrothermally altered pyroclastites and 11.3 Ma small rhyolite lava domes eroded up to the vent regions	Tuffs and rhyolite building stones, K rich	Vineyards, dry-built terrace walls	Rare outcrops, quarries	Hiking route
t1.11	Andesite and dacite cones and subvolcanic body precinct					
t1.12	Tokaj Hill	10.5 Ma composite volcano with medium long dacite flows and pyroclastites developed on eroded ash flow and rhyolite dome surface, Pleistocene loess cover	Dacite building stones	Dry-built terrace walls traditional wine cellars	Dacite quarries, loess walls, Lebujs rhyolite–perlite outcrop	Nature trail, hiking routes
t1.13	Sátor Hills (Sátoraljaújhely)	12 Ma dacite composite volcano with controversial origin (subvolcanic /subaerial) developed on Badenian ash-flow/fallout deposits	Medieval Au–Ag mining, building stone (dacite, rhyolite, trass tuff)	UNESCO Ungváry cellar, traditional cellars, dry-built terrace walls	Geyserite cone, quarries, Au–Ag mining area, panoramic viewpoints	Nature trail hiking routes
t1.14	Kopasz Hill (Tálya)	11.7 Ma columnar jointed olivine bearing pyroxene andesite subvolcanic intrusion,	Crushed stone	–	Operating andesite quarry	–
t1.15	Szegi Hill	Erosion remnant of 11 Ma dacite flow on the silicic pyroclastites	–	Vineyards, dry-built terrace walls	–	Hiking route
t1.16	Mulató Hill	Dacite (undated) laccolith with intensive vesiculation and mineralization (sulphide, carbonate) intruded into silicic pyroclastite series (tuff, tuffite) and remelted the hostrock	Crushed stone	Vineyards, traditional wine cellars	Abandoned andesite quarry	–
t1.17	Hydrothermal deposit precinct					
t1.18	Botkó geyserite cone (Sárospatak)	Centre of the upwelling hydrothermal fluids with intensive silicification and cinnabar mineralization	Quartzite	–	Quarry	Nature trail
t1.19	Erdőhorváti–Tolcsva hydro-quartzite lodes	Lodes of hydro-quartzite in variable altered andesite, various microcrystalline/amorphous quartz polymorphs (rhinestone, agate, chalcedony)	Mineral collecting damage	–	Small open pits and debris	–
t1.20	Ligetmajor diatomite (Erdőbénye)	Clayey bentonitic diatomite (2–3) deposited on rhyolite tuff epiclastites	Diatomite, quartzite with fossils	Wooded pasture	Quarry	–
t1.21	Árpád Hill (Szerencs) quartzite	Blocks of the quartzite with remnants of geysers cavity system	–	–	Outcrop	–
t1.22	Megyaszó petrified wood	Silicified (opal) thermophilic flora (Ulmus, Betula, Carpinus) trees and branches in Pannonian sediments	–	–	Quarry and debris	–

694 The walls installed to protect soil against erosion and facilitate 697
 695 slope cultivation were first mentioned in archival documents 698
 696 from the seventeenth century (Balassa 1991). The terrace 699
 walls were constructed by constant removing of larger boulders coming to the surface by cultivation or on the occasion of one fold landscaping of the terrain (Incze and Novák 2013;

700 Novák and Incze 2014). In both cases, the stones used for
 701 construction reflect the local lithological diversity, the shape
 702 and pattern of walls displaying the relief characteristics and
 703 the local knowledge on how to maintain soil fertility during
 704 several hundreds of years (Novák et al. 2014). Terraced slopes
 705 and walls appear on about 590 ha (11.3%) within the wine
 706 region, most frequently at steeper (>17%) slopes (Incze and
 707 Novák 2016). Except for a few reconstructed and cultivated
 708 terraces, most of them are abandoned and subjected to second-
 709 ary succession (Nyizsalovszki and Fórián 2007). In lack of
 710 further management, their collapse is predictable causing sig-
 711 nificant loss of this characteristic landscape features, which
 712 are representing cultural and natural values at the same time.
 713 Recognizing those as important geodiversity sites could help
 714 in the effective geoconservation.

715 **Inventory and Preliminary Geosite Assessment** 716 **of the Tokaj Wine Region**

717 The inventory of geosites is the first and crucial step in anal-
 718 ysis of geodiversity (Brilha 2015). The first important step in
 719 this stage is the evaluation of geological and geodiversity sites
 720 with the aim to use them particularly for touristic and educa-
 721 tional purposes. In Hungary, systematic description and char-
 722 acterization of the geological heritage are lacking in the na-
 723 tional geoconservation strategy. Thus, this initial inventorying
 724 and assessment could promote such work in other areas of the
 725 country. The inventorying area is primarily the TWR but later
 726 is has to be extended to the north to involve the continuation of
 727 the volcanic area of the Tokaj Mts. Our methodology follows
 728 the traditional framework (e.g. Coratza et al. 2011) with bib-
 729 liographical revision and building GIS database with topo-
 730 graphic (1:10,000), geological maps (1: 25,000), and digital
 Q18 731 DEM (SRTM) and landcover (CORINE Land Cover 2006
 732 seamless vector data 2016) databases. During the detailed
 733 fieldwork, general and descriptive data were recorded with
 734 volcanological–geological information and the human im-
 735 pacts on the landscape. We selected and evaluated those land-
 736 scape features, which had significant contribution in the per-
 737 ception and understanding of regional geomorphological evo-
 738 lution according to their scientific, educational and aesthetic
 739 value, current condition and accessibility. The accurate defi-
 740 nition of the site characteristics is particularly important in
 741 choosing objects for subsequent multi-faceted priority
 742 analysis.

743 The Megyer Hill ancient millstone quarry was selected as
 744 an important geosite example because of their local and re-
 745 gional significance in geology–volcanology, geoconservation
 746 and tourism (Szepesi and Ésik 2015). The geosite inventory
 747 sheet contains the major inventoried attributes (Table 2). The
 748 preliminary inventory (Ésik et al. 2015) recognized 40 TWR
 749 geosites. The volcano-geomorphological forms and processes

were identified, listed and mapped (Table 1, Fig. 3b) We note
 that in some cases, the geologically important value and its
 rarity in the site can be recognized, but more research would
 be necessary to support it by scientific data. Thus, the scien-
 tific value can be clearly defined (rarity, number of written
 papers, interpretation level; Vujcic et al. 2011), but more
 study would be necessary to highlight their importance in
 geoeducational programme and tourism.

The inventory has to be followed by several successive
 stages (assessment, interpretation, promotion, monitoring) to
 establish a regional geoconservation strategy. There is no stan-
 dardized method to quantify the importance of a geosite or
 geodiversity sites and evaluate their scientific and/or their
 educational/touristic values (Bruschi and Cendrero 2009;
 Pereira and Pereira 2010; Vujcic et al. 2011; Reynard et al.
 2015). Brilha (2015) provided criteria, indicators and param-
 eters, what can be used in the quantitative assessment; how-
 ever, in this study, we used the geosite assessment model
 (GAM) proposed by Vujcic et al. (2009). This was applied
 also by Moufti and Németh (2013) for the volcanic area of
 Saudi Arabia. The GAM involves main values from additional
 values that can be measured by objective values. The main
 values comprise three groups of variables: (1) scientific/
 educational value (VSE), (2) scenic/aesthetic value (VSA)
 and (3) protection (VPr). The VSE can be further divided into
 rarity, representativeness, knowledge on geoscientific issues
 and level of interpretation. The VSA contains variables such
 as viewpoints, surface, surrounding landscape and nature, and
 environmental fitting of sites. The VPr consists of current
 condition, protection level, vulnerability and suitable number
 of visitors. The additional values are gathered into (1) func-
 tional values (VF_n) and (2) touristic values (V_{tr}). The major
 indicators of VF_n are accessibility, additional natural values,
 additional anthropogenic values, vicinity of emissive centres
 (e.g. main cities) and vicinity to main roads (or rail network).
 The V_{tr} is calculated by estimating the promotion, annual
 number of organized visits, vicinity to a visitor centre, exis-
 tence of interpretative panels, annual number of visitors, tour-
 ism infrastructure, tour guide services, hostelry services and
 restaurant services. Each indicator is ranked between 0 and 1
 values. In the total sum, there are 12 subindicators of main
 values and 15 subindicators of additional values that define
 GAM in an unweighted, simple equation:

$$\text{GAM} = \text{main values (VSE + VSA + VPr)} \\ + \text{additional values (VF}_n + \text{VTr).}$$

Based on the result of the evaluation process, the main
 values (*X* axis) and the additional values (*Y* axis) define a
 nine-field matrix (Fig. 7). The position of the evaluated site
 indicates the current conditions of scientific recognition,
 conservation and tourism development. Vujcic et al. (2011)

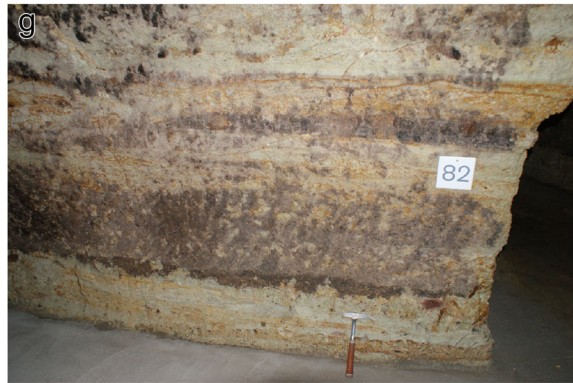
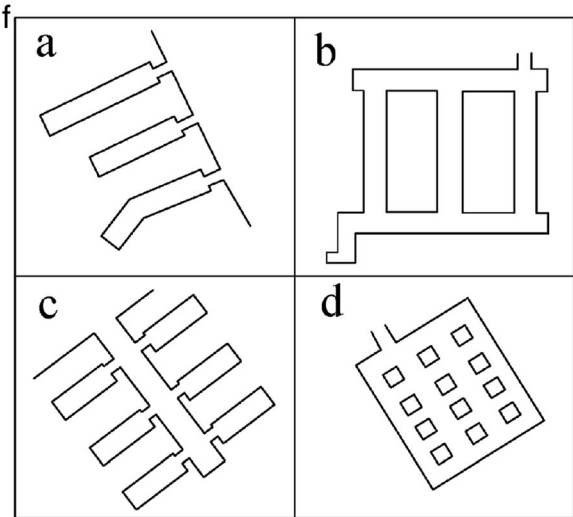


Fig. 6 Classification of the geoh heritage objects of Tokaj Wine Region Historic Cultural Landscape: *Volcanic edifices, resulting from denudation and inversion of relief.* **a** The eponymous Tokaj Hill dacite composite cone, symbol of the Tokaj wine region. **b** Semicircular peaks of Sátor Hill group composite dacite cone, inspiring imagine an ancient volcanic crater, as high priority object, regional centre of cross border active and geotourism activities. **c** A small-scale form: Vár Hill (Bodrogszegi) a dacite capped erosional butte. **d** Chalcedony vein in altered andesite (Erdőhorváti) with strong interest of mineral collecting activities *Geodiversity sites connected to land use traditions of the Cultural Landscape.* **e** Megyer Hill, old millstone quarry, with a picturesque lake attract tourist and classified as high priority geosites. **f** Layout types of wine cellars (Frisnyák 2002): *a* the simple, one entry, *b* parallel entry, *c* main axis branched, *d* larger hall like arrangements. **g** Pyroclastite layering in Moonvalley Wines cellar (Mád). **h** Newly renovated dry-built terrace walls (Mád). Photos by János Szepesi

Q16

801 and Moufi and Németh (2013) emphasized that the geosites–
 802 geodiversity sites with high and additional values could be the
 803 principal places of (geo)tourism, while in the case of the
 804 lower scored object, significant development (infrastruc-
 805 ture, interpretation level) is necessary. This is clearly il-
 806 lustrated by the high values of the well-known localities
 807 in the Bakony–Balaton Geopark (Tihany and Hegyestű),
 808 in the Novohrad–Nógrád Geopark (Ipolytarnóc) and in the
 809 the Ság hill, where the Kemenes Volcano Park was de-
 810 signed (Fig. 7). Concerning the TWR, the geotopes/
 811 geosites belonging to the large composite cones have high
 812 main and additional GAM values. Their cultural and/or
 813 religious (calvary) significance is also important for the
 814 local community. The spectacular Tokaj Hill is an epony-
 815 mous cone of the wine region (Fig. 6a) and a place of the
 816 Hungarian Geotope Day education event. The Sátor Hills
 817 (Sátoraljaújhely, Fig. 6b) is the centre of active cross bor-
 818 der tourism (Zemplén Adventure Park). The further
 819 geosites are scattered with higher main and medium to
 820 low additional values that reflect their scientific values
 821 and their potential for further development. This could
 822 involve educational trails, interpretative elements, visitor
 823 centres, etc. Some of the geosites are severely impaired by
 824 illegal mineral collecting activities, which require effec-
 825 tive conservation restrictions. The quarries are represented
 826 by various GAM coordinates (medium to low) and the
 827 still operating mines usually have smaller additional
 828 values. The old millstone quarry of Megyer Hill
 829 (Fig. 6e) is ranked by the highest main value, although
 830 the renewed nature trail requires further improvement
 831 with geotouristic infrastructure (e.g. interpretation panels).
 832 The well-known UNESCO wine cellars (Rákóczi Cellar,
 833 Sátoraljaújhely, Ungvári Wine Cellar, Sárospatak) have
 834 high GAM values, whereas the smaller cellars are without
 835 any scientific interests. The dry-built terrace walls are
 836 common land use elements in the vineyards and have
 837 the lowest main values. On the contrary, the vicinity to
 838 the touristic infrastructure resulted in usually elevated

additional values. Nevertheless, at this stage, they belong 839
 to the low priority sites in a touristic point of view. 840

Discussion and Conclusions 841

The Carpathian–Pannonian region in eastern-central Europe 842
 provides a unique insight into the nature of volcanic forma- 843
 tions formed by a wide range of volcanic activities over the 844
 last 20 Ma. The spectacular volcanic heritage (Harangi 2014; 845
 Ésik et al. 2015; Szepesi and Ésik 2015) offers a new way for 846
 geotourism, which could initiate the recovery of economy in 847
 otherwise disadvantaged regions. Although there are two 848
 geoparks and a volcano park in Hungary, a systematic inven- 849
 tory and assessment of geosites are still lacking. This would be 850
 an essential step to establish a geoconservation strategy, to 851
 mark the priorities (e.g. geotourism) in site management 852
 (Brilha 2016; Reynard et al. 2015) and also to provide scien- 853
 tific basis for the proposed Pannonian Volcano Route 854
 (Harangi et al. 2015). 855

The TWR is a World Heritage Site based on the long tradi- 856
 tion of viticulture. It focuses on the viticulture traditions and 857
 wine tourism only; however, we demonstrated here that it 858
 contains valuable geoh heritage what could be an integrated part 859
 of the touristic market. This area belongs to the Tokaj–Slanske 860
 vrchy volcanic chain, a unique andesitic–rhyolitic volcanic 861
 field formed during the middle Miocene and is planned to be 862
 the starting point for the cross-country thematic Pannonian 863
 Volcano Route. Three main precincts can be defined here: 864
 (1) silicic lava dome/flow and pyroclastic deposit precinct, 865
 (2) andesite and dacite cones and subvolcanic body precinct 866
 and (3) hydrothermal deposit precincts. Each of them is com- 867
 posed of further geotopes and geosites as well as ex situ 868
 geoh heritage elements based on their scientific values, whereas 869
 there are additional geodiversity elements (e.g. cellars, 870
 quarries, dry-built terrace walls) what link the geological fea- 871
 tures with the local tradition of viticulture. The raw material 872
 exploration has thousand years of history in the region from 873
 Palaeolithic obsidian. The rhyolite tuffs providing building 874
 stones, the pottery supported by clay minerals and the perlites 875
 used in glassworks. The silicified pyroclastites were used to 876
 carve quality millstones as early as the fifteenth century. The 877
 viticulture roots through the accumulation of a special clayey 878
 cobbly loam and reaches the bedrocks which are therefore 879
 responsible for the local characteristics of grapes and wines. 880
 The cellars and dry-built terrace walls are integrated 881
 elements both the geodiversity and the viticulture. 882
 Furthermore, the volcanic area of the TWR played a 883
 significant role also in the early geological history in 884
 the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, what elements 885
 can be effectively built up into the geoh heritage value. In 886Q20
 summary, geoh heritage of the TWR offers a complex 887
 view of the andesitic to rhyolitic volcanism from the 888

t2.1 **Table 2** Characteristics of Tokaj Wine Region Cultural Landscape geomorphosites, summary of geology, cultural landscape features and the current state of geotourism activities

t2.2	Geomorphosite evaluation sheet		
t2.3	Identification	Name: old millstone quarry	Area: Király–Megyer Hill Code: KMA3
t2.4	Situation	Coordinates: 48° 21' 26" N, 21° 34' 21" E	Elevation: 285 m
t2.5	Site	Type 1: geological basic profile	Type 2: quarry
t2.6	Geosite attributes	Submarine, lapilli tuff, hydrothermal alterations, quarry, millstone manufacturing, natural reserve	
t2.7	Main interest	Picturesque lake in the quarry yard with the vertical quarry walls	
t2.8	Secondary interest	Geodiversity, biodiversity	
t2.9	Geology, volcanology, geomorphology	<i>Rock</i>	Pumice breccia with high abundance of angular/rounded lithic clasts (perlitic lapille)
t2.10		<i>Interpretation</i>	Pyroclast flow and fall sequence deposited in dominantly submarine environment
t2.11		<i>Alterations</i>	Various hydrothermal alterations: silicification, alunite, kaolinite
t2.12		<i>Chronology</i>	Mollusca fauna (Chlamys, Cardium, Isocardia)—mid-Miocene/Badenian stage
t2.13		<i>Morphology</i>	Semicircular erosional range with a local basin opening to south (selective erosion)
t2.14	Geodiversity	Various pyroclastic rocks (lapilli tuffs) and hydrothermal alterations (silicification, argillations) (geyserite) and mineralization (alunite, cinnabar, kaolinite)	
t2.15	Biodiversity	Maple-oak woods (Averi tatarico-Quercetum) waterside and aquatic plants duckweeds (<i>Lemna minor</i> , <i>Lemna</i>)	
t2.16	Viewpoints	Number of viewpoints accessible by a pedestrian pathway	
t2.17	Landscape difference	High, quarry lake, maple-oak woods, vineyards	
t2.18	Protection status	Nature conservation area of national interest (1997) UNESCO World Heritage buffer zone	
t2.19	Scientific awareness	High, World Geomorphological Landscapes series, Springer 2015	
t2.20	Mining and Manufactory	Millstone: from fifteenth century, kaolinite: 1887–1940, alunite 1977–1985, quartzite: 1950–1990, millstone, pottery, tile stove and pipe factories	
t2.21	Accessibility	Medium, dirt road and pedestrian pathway (nature trail) access	
t2.22	Public awareness	High, Hungary’s most beautiful natural attraction (internet voting 2011)	
t2.23	Visitors number	Higher, 5000<	
t2.24	Touristic values	Vicinity of larger city, interpretative panels, garbage cans	
t2.25	Intensity of use	Higher, on weekends 100<	
t2.26	Fragility	Low	
t2.27	Natural risks	Low, scrubby–woody vegetation around the walls need control for better visibility	

889 primary volcanic features to the subsequent alteration
 890 and mineralization and from the significant role in the
 891 historical geological recognition to the close link with
 892 the traditional viticulture.

893 The preliminary study in the TWR, presented in this paper,
 894 is the first detailed evaluation of the geosite and geodiversity
 895 sites in Hungary. Albert and Csillag (2011) compiled a set of
 896 localities with geological interests in the Balaton Upland area;
 897 however, they gave only a brief description of the sites without
 898 a systematic assessment and evaluation. Application of the
 899 proposed methodology (Brilha 2016; Reynard et al. 2015)
 900 followed here yields, however, a benefit to place the recog-
 901 nized geoheritage in an international geotouristic and
 902 geoconservation context. Nevertheless, this is still the very
 903 start of the work and more effort is necessary to obtain a
 904 coherent picture about the geotouristic value of the area. The
 905 quantitative assessment of the selected localities, which can-
 906 didate to become geosites, revealed that the geological values

often require additional scientific work to justify the represen- 907
 tativeness and rarity and the suitability to introduce them into 908
 geoeducation programme and geotourism. The volcanic area 909
 can be classified as ‘Volcanic landform resulting from denuda- 910
 tion and inversion of relief’ (Wood 2009), and as a results of 911
 strong erosion, the root zone of the volcanoes has been re- 912
 vealed offering a special insight into their deeper structure of 913
 the volcanic edifices including shallow intrusive bodies and 914
 ore mineralization. The extended silicic volcanism involving 915
 both effusive (various lava domes and rhyolitic lava flows) 916
 and explosive products (ignimbrite sheets) is unique in the 917
 Carpathian–Pannonian region and possibly resembles the 918
 modern activity of the Laguna del Maule area, at the Chile– 919
 Argentina border zone (Singer et al. 2014). Furthermore, this 920
 volcanic area in overall can be comparable with the present 921
 Kagoshima graben and Taupo zone volcanism. These ana- 922
 logues can be used for geoeducational purposes to attract peo- 923
 ple and to teach how volcanoes work. 924

Fig. 7 Preliminary geosite assessment of the Tokaj Wine Region Historic Cultural Landscape volcanic geoheritage, with priority fields of the tourism interest and further development possibilities including the most important geosites of Pannonian Volcano Route for comparison

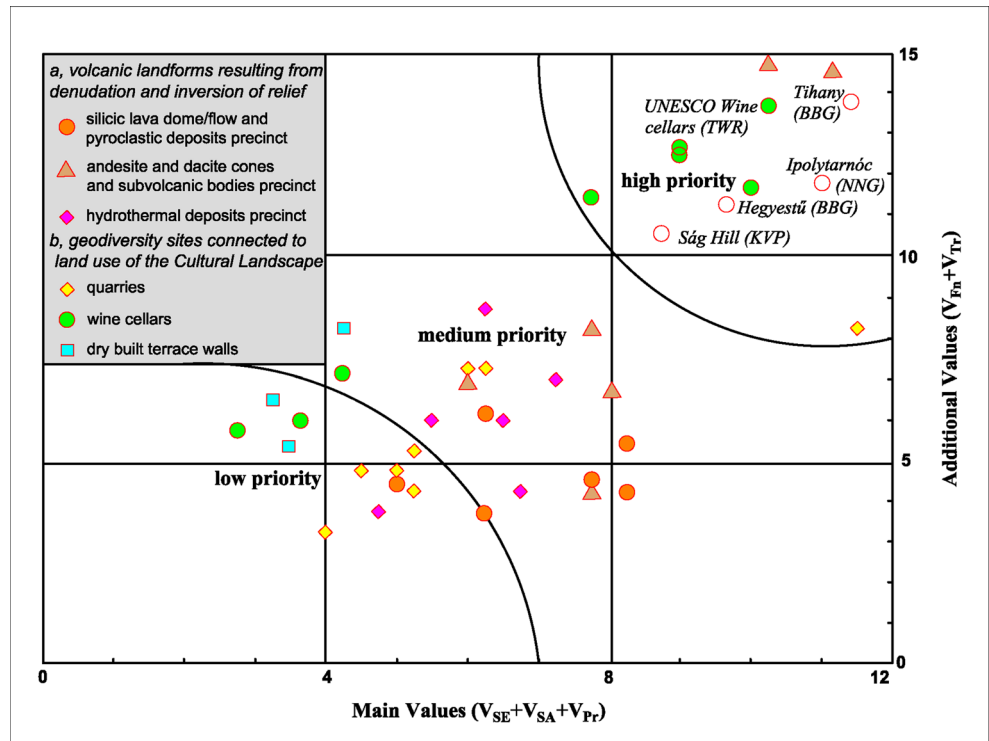
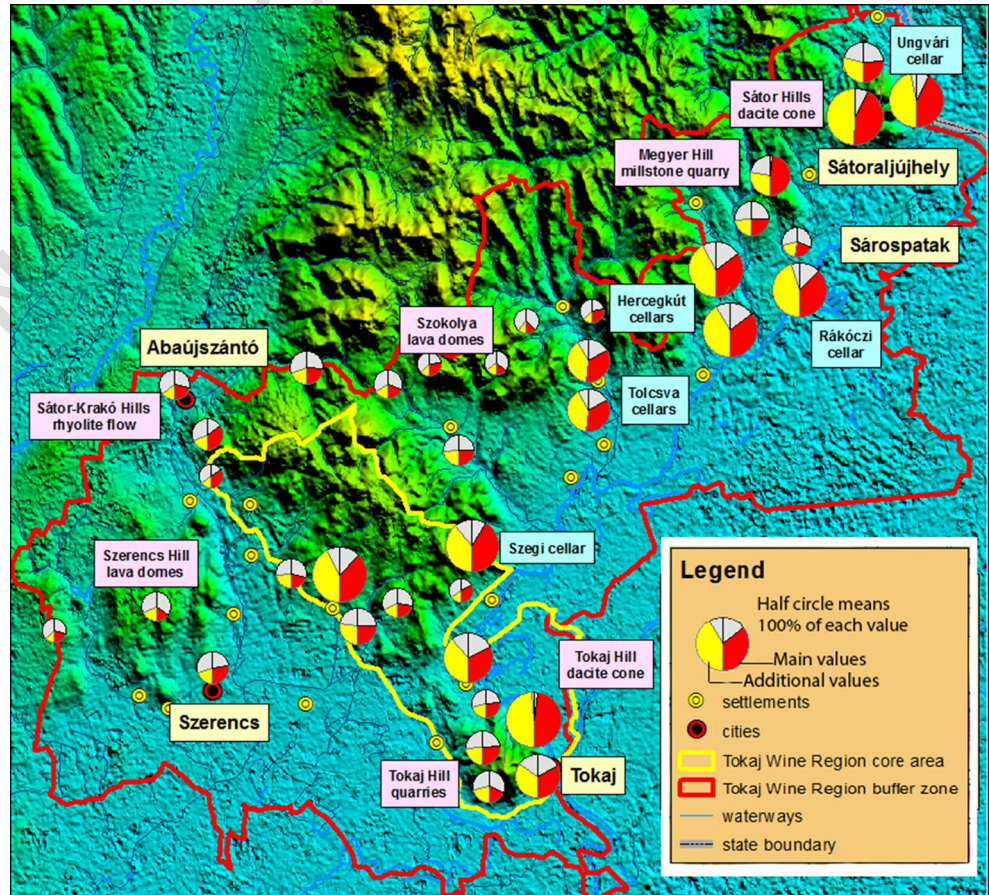


Fig. 8 Geosite assessment map of the Tokaj wine region. The radius of the circles is proportion of additional value of the sites, referring their geotourism priority ranking



925 The first assessment of the inventoried 40 potential geosites
 926 combined the evaluation of scientific, cultural/historical, aes-
 927 thetic and socio-economic values. The preliminary result
 928 (Figs. 7 and 8) enables to classify them into three main groups:
 929 low, medium and high priority objects (Feuilliet and Soup
 930 2011). The low priority objects (low GAM coordinates) in-
 931 volve the operating mines, terrace walls and simple wine cel-
 932 lars with minor geotourism interest. The medium priority sites
 933 (medium main values, moderate management scores) are the
 934 small volcanic bodies, hydrothermal deposits and abandoned
 935 quarries with the possibility of enhancing geotourism interest.
 936 Finally, the high priority sites (highest GAM coordinates)
 937 comprise the unique composite volcanic cones (e.g. Tokaj
 938 Hill, Sátor Hills) and the World Heritage cellars, which must
 939 be considered for further (geo)touristic development.
 940 However, in an UNESCO World Heritage cultural site, it
 941 needs particular efforts to demonstrate that geological values
 942 could have a significant additional element of the destination
 943 brand and could enhance tourism. Therefore, it is important to
 944 deliver the result of the inventory and assessment of the po-
 945 tential geoheritage to touristic value and introduce new ele-
 946 ments to attract people. The proposed Pannonian Volcano
 947 Route with the first stops in the TWR followed by an initiation
 948 to establish a geopark could help in this programme; however,
 949 further works are crucial to set the geoheritage more visible
 950 not only in the TWR but also in Hungary.

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UNCORRECTED PROOF

AUTHOR QUERIES

AUTHOR PLEASE ANSWER ALL QUERIES.

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- Q3. Ref. "Brilha 2016" is cited in the body but its bibliographic information is missing. Kindly provide its bibliographic information in the list.
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- Q6. Please check if the edits to the sentence starting "A case study in the..." retained the intended meaning.
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- Q22. References "Martin and Németh (2014a)" and "Martin and Németh (2014)" based on the original manuscript we received were identical. Hence, the latter was deleted and reference list and citations were adjusted. Please check if appropriate.
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