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Author(s): Paride Balzani, Wouter Dekoninck, Heike Feldhaar, Anne Freitag, Filippo Frizzi, Jan Frouz, Alberto Masoni, Elva Robinson, Jouni Sorvari & Giacomo Santini

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1 Challenges and a call to action for protecting European red wood ants

2 Paride Balzani^{1,2,*}, Wouter Dekoninck³, Heike Feldhaar⁴, Anne Freitag⁵, Filippo Frizzi¹, Jan
3 Frouz⁶, Alberto Masoni¹, Elva Robinson⁷, Jouni Sorvari^{8,9}, Giacomo Santini¹

4
5 ¹Department of Biology, University of Florence, via Madonna del Piano 6, Sesto Fiorentino,
6 Italy

7 ²Faculty of Fisheries and Protection of Waters, South Bohemian Research Center of
8 Aquaculture and Biodiversity of Hydrocenoses, University of South Bohemia in České
9 Budějovice, Zátěší 728/II, 38925 Vodňany, Czech Republic

10 ³Royal Belgian Institute of Natural Sciences, Rue Vautier 29, 1000 Brussels, Belgium

11 ⁴Department of Animal Ecology I, Bayreuth Center of Ecology and Environmental Research
12 (BayCEER), University of Bayreuth, 95440 Bayreuth, Germany

13 ⁵Cantonal Museum of Zoology, Pl. de la Riponne 6, CH-1005 Lausanne, Switzerland

14 ⁶Institute for Environmental Studies, Faculty of Science, Charles University, Benátská 2, CZ
15 128 01 Prague 2, Czech Republic

16 ⁷Department of Biology, University of York, York, YO10 5DD, United Kingdom

17 ⁸Department of Biology, University of Turku, FI-20014 Turku, Finland

18 ⁹Natural Resources Institute Finland (Luke), P.O. Box 2, FI-00790 Helsinki, Finland

19 *Corresponding author: Paride Balzani, paride.balzani@unifi.it

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23
24 **Article impact statement:** Red wood ants are a neglected and complex target of
25 conservation that, to be effective, needs an international, coordinated strategy.

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27

28 **Abstract**

29 Red wood ants (RWA) are a group of keystone species widespread in temperate and boreal
30 forests of the Northern Hemisphere. Despite this, there is increasing evidence of local
31 declines and extinctions. Here, we give an overview of the current protection status of RWA
32 throughout Europe and review their IUCN threat classification. Only some RWA species
33 have been assessed at a global scale, while not all national red lists of the countries where
34 RWA are present include these species. In addition, different assessment criteria, inventory
35 approaches, and risk categories are used in different countries, and data deficiency is
36 frequent. The legislative protection is even more complex, with some countries protecting
37 RWA implicitly together with the wildlife fauna, while others explicitly protect the whole
38 group or particular species. This complexity often extends within countries, for example in
39 Italy, where, outside of the Alps, only the introduced species are protected, while the native
40 ones in decline are not. Therefore, an international, coordinated framework is needed for the
41 protection of RWA. However, this first requires that the conservation target should be
42 defined. Due to the similar morphology, complex taxonomy and frequent hybridization,
43 protecting the whole RWA group seems a more efficient strategy than protecting single
44 species, though with a distinction between autochthonous and introduced species. Second, an
45 update of the current distribution of RWA species is needed throughout Europe. Third, a
46 protecting law cannot be effective without the collaboration of forest managers, whose
47 activity influences RWA habitat. Finally, RWA mounds offer a peculiar microhabitat, hosting
48 a multitude of taxa, some of which are obligate myrmecophilous species listed in the IUCN

49 Red List. Therefore, RWAs' role as umbrella species could facilitate their protection if they
50 are considered not only as target species but also as providers of species-rich microhabitats.

51 **Introduction**

52 With at least 13 species described in the Palearctic and up to 19 species reported in North
53 America, red wood ants (RWA, i.e. species belonging to the *Formica rufa* group) are
54 ecologically dominant species (Stockan et al., 2016). RWA are considered to be keystone
55 species in temperate and boreal forests of Eurasia. Due to their large and long-lasting nests
56 they impact functioning of mainly forest ecosystems in many ways and across several trophic
57 levels, e.g. by controlling forest pest species (Trigos-Peral et al., 2021). Although RWA
58 species are still abundant in many parts of their distribution range, their conservation raises
59 increasing concerns (Dekoninck et al., 2010; Cherix et al., 2012; Breen, 2014; Mabelis &
60 Korczyńska, 2016). Indeed, there is evidence of local decline or even extinction. For
61 example, *F. uralensis* went extinct in Switzerland (Cherix & Maddalena-Feller, 1986), while
62 the scattered relict populations of this species in France, Germany and Poland are facing high
63 extinction risks (Stankiewicz et al., 2005; Wegnez & Mourey, 2016). Moreover, local
64 information is scattered and sometimes contradictory. For example, *F. pratensis* is reported
65 as extinct in mainland Britain since at least 1988 (Nicholson, 1997). However, its presumed
66 extinction is frequently erroneously dated to 2005, the year of the last update for this species
67 on the Bees Wasps and Ants Recording Society (BWARS, www.bwars.com), although the
68 page clearly reports that "The last known nest, near Wareham, died out in 1987".

69 The main threats for these species have already been discussed in detail by Sorvari
70 (2016). However, it is worth stressing that the relative importance of these threats varies

71 considerably in different parts of their Palearctic distribution range. In the southernmost
72 countries RWA are restricted to mountain areas, whereas at northernmost sites they also
73 occur at lower altitudes (Stockan et al., 2016), and threatening factors may thus differ.
74 Additionally, their problematic taxonomy, with some species identifiable only through
75 molecular analysis (Bernasconi et al., 2010), the presence of cryptic species (Bernasconi et
76 al., 2011; Seifert, 1996, 2021) and widespread hybridization (Seifert et al., 2010; Beresford et
77 al., 2017), makes it difficult to efficiently assess population size and distribution.

78 Despite their ecological importance and widespread distribution, Hymenoptera, with
79 the exception of wild bees (Kleijn et al., 2015; Drossart & Gérard, 2020), lag behind other
80 insect taxa, like Lepidoptera or Coleoptera, as conservation targets (Leandro et al., 2017).
81 Ants (particularly RWA) were an early group to be defined as vulnerable and worthy of
82 protection (Wells et al., 1983). Given the importance of RWA in forest pest management, the
83 European Council recommended as early as 1965 that all the member states adopt legal
84 provisions for protecting these species, highlighting their decline and the need for their
85 conservation (Pavan, 1981). However, more than 50 years later there is no unique legal
86 framework, and contradictory measures are sometimes taken. The importance of the focus on
87 RWA protection extends beyond the conservation of these species per se. Indeed, they are
88 important ecosystem engineers and umbrella species (e.g. Balzani et al., 2021a), so their
89 conservation is relevant also for a wide range of other taxa. Moreover, RWA are perfect
90 flagship species, providing an important example for the establishment of a supranational
91 scheme aimed at the conservation of an invertebrate group. In this paper, we review the legal
92 aspect of RWA protection and discuss how conserving these species must have support in
93 national laws in Europe.

94 We will briefly review their position in the IUCN red list, then give an overview of
95 their protection at the European level and, finally, we provide examples representative of the
96 many contradictions and paradoxes that characterize the protection of these species. The main
97 aim of this paper is to provide a wide overview of RWA protection in Europe by searching
98 information for all the countries entirely included in Europe, with some in-depth analyses of
99 specific cases, of which the importance extends beyond their specific limitations, as they can
100 be paradigmatic of the difficulties encountered in the protection of many other invertebrate
101 taxa.

102

103 **Status quo of RWA protection in Europe**

104 *RWA protection at national level*

105 Several European countries protect RWA (Figure 1; Appendix S1). Some of them, such as
106 Austria, implicitly protect them by protecting all the wildlife fauna, while others explicitly
107 mention RWA, at least as a group. For example, in Estonia and Poland, all RWA are
108 protected species, and in Hungary RWA are protected and their nests assigned a monetary
109 value. In Switzerland, RWA are listed as protected since 1966 and all species are explicitly
110 included in the Annex 3 of protected species in the Ordinance on the Protection of Nature and
111 Landscape (OPN) of the Swiss Federal Council. In Germany, besides being protected by the
112 Federal Nature Conservation Act (Bundesnaturschutzgesetz, BNatSchG) like all wildlife, all
113 mound-building RWA are additionally listed as especially protected in Germany (like all wild
114 bees and a few wasp species) under the Federal Species Protection Ordinance

115 (Bundesartenschutzverordnung, BArtSchV), which includes a list of protected species. It is
116 thus prohibited to disturb or destroy their nests or remove workers or other life-stages.
117 Moreover, *F. polyclteta* x *rufa* hybrids are implicitly protected as well since the parental
118 species are protected. In Belgium, all RWA species were protected by a law of 1980. Later,
119 Belgium legislation was organized at a Federal level and in 2009 the governments of the
120 Flanders and Wallonia published a law in which three (for Flanders) and two (for Wallonia)
121 species were protected, whereas Brussels protects only one species (*F. polyclteta*). Finally,
122 some other countries explicitly prioritize the protection of particular RWA species. In
123 Bulgaria, some RWA species have been protected since 1959, though the obsolete scientific
124 names included have never been updated, and *F. rufa* is protected by the 2002 Bulgarian
125 Biodiversity Act. In the United Kingdom, *F. pratensis* is a British Action Plan (BAP) 2007
126 priority species, i.e. those species “that were identified as being the most threatened and
127 requiring conservation action”, being also listed in the Species of Principal Importance in
128 England. Also, *F. aquilonia* is included in the Northern Ireland priority species list.

129 *The Italian paradox*

130 Italy is paradigmatic of what happens in the countries at the southern limit of RWA
131 distribution, where less information is available, and public awareness is lower. In Italy, these
132 species are typical dwellers of the Alps (Pavan et al., 1971), where they occur at elevations
133 between 450 and 2000 meters. However, this information dates back to several decades ago
134 and it is to be taken cautiously, since a shift of the distribution area towards higher elevations
135 due to warming as documented in other insect taxa (Hagen et al., 2007; Moret et al., 2016) is
136 possible. Further south, the situation is more complex. The only autochthonous species

137 outside of the Alps is *Formica pratensis*, occurring also in the Apennine mountains. The
138 actual distribution and abundance of this species are however unknown, and the few existing
139 reports are outdated publications (Pavan et al., 1971), personal observations, and sparse, often
140 unconfirmed notes on citizen science platforms (e.g. iNaturalist). It is clear, however, that
141 some of the Apennine populations have recently disappeared or significantly decreased in
142 number (G. Santini personal observation). This declining trend is in line with the tendency
143 observed in other countries, such as Switzerland, Belgium, Romania and Turkey (Dekoninck
144 et al., 2003; Freitag et al., 2008; Kiss & Kobori, 2010; Çamlitepe & Aksoy, 2019), as well as
145 the British mainland (Nicholson, 1997).

146 This situation is further complicated by the fact that since the 1950s to 1980s, several
147 introductions were carried out by transplanting entire RWA nests (mostly belonging to the
148 species *F. paralugubris*; Masoni et al., 2019) from the Alps to the Apennine mountains as
149 biological control agents (Pavan, 1959). These introductions had varying success, with some
150 populations that are developing traits of invasiveness, impacting the native fauna (Frizzi et
151 al., 2018; Balzani et al., 2021b), but also other taxa (Di Nuzzo et al. 2022).

152 In Italy, no national law protects RWA (nor any other ant), despite an aborted attempt
153 to include the whole group in a law in 2001 (N. 5013 – Rules for the protection of the
154 heterotherm fauna), which was not approved. Instead, each local Authority (Region)
155 legislates on the matter. Several Regions grant some type of protection (Appendix S2) either
156 by generally protecting ant nests, mentioning the “*Fomica rufa* group”, or specifying the
157 names of some species (sometimes with misspelled names). Interestingly, one regional law
158 currently grants protection to other ant species, including *Formicoxenus nitidulus*, an obligate

159 myrmecophilous ant listed as “Vulnerable” at a Global level (IUCN Red List) cohabiting
160 within the nests of various RWA species (Härkönen & Sorvari, 2017). Similarly, in the
161 United Kingdom, *F. nitidulus* is a BAP priority species for conservation, but its wood ant
162 hosts are not protected. How to protect an obligate myrmecophile without protecting its host
163 ant is unfortunately not specified.

164 The most peculiar situation occurs in the Regions straddling the Tuscan-Emilian
165 Apennine, where both the native *F. pratensis* and the introduced *F. paralugubris* occur, the
166 former declining and the latter spreading. Quite surprisingly, protection laws were formulated
167 for the introduced species, and protection started soon after the first introductions in the
168 1950s (Pavia, Prefectoral Decree 6th April 1956). Moreover, efforts to increase public
169 awareness of the introduced species have been done, whereas the declining *F. pratensis* did
170 not receive comparable attention.

171 *RWA protection at international level*

172 According to the IUCN Red List (accessed 8th October 2021), RWA species are classified as
173 “Near Threatened” at a global level, but only some species (*F. rufa*, *F. lugubris*, *F. polycтена*,
174 *F. aquilonia*, *F. pratensis*, and *F. uralensis*) have been assessed. Previous assessments (from
175 1983 to 1994) classified all the above RWA species as “Vulnerable” except *F. uralensis* that
176 was classified as “Indeterminate” (from 1986 to 1994).

177 RWA (and in general, ants) are not included in the European Red List
178 (https://ec.europa.eu/environment/nature/conservation/species/redlist/index_en.htm, accessed
179 11th October 2021). On the national or regional level, the situation is more complex. Not all

180 European countries include ants, or even insects, in national red lists
181 (<https://www.nationalredlist.org/>, accessed 11th October 2021). For example, in Ireland, no
182 red list has been produced that covers ants at all, even though all RWA species present are in
183 urgent need of local protection (Breen, 2014). Moreover, when RWA are considered, there is
184 no consensus across different national red lists on which species to include, assessment
185 criteria differ, some risk categories are not fully comparable, and data deficiency is frequent
186 (Appendix S3). In addition, it is unclear how hybrids, an often-occurring phenomenon in
187 RWA, should be treated. For example, only the provisional Red List of the ants of Flanders
188 explicitly assessed hybrids (*F. rufa x polycтена*; Dekoninck et al., 2003, 2005).

189 The lack of a comprehensive assessment of the risks faced by RWA species is not
190 surprising, as all ants suffer from the same lack of information. Only 149 out of the
191 approximately 14,000 globally known living ant species
192 (<https://www.antweb.org/statsPage.do>, accessed 4th January 2022) are listed in the IUCN
193 Red List. For all of them, the last official assessment dates back to 1996, and needs therefore
194 to be updated. RWA currently face increasing threats throughout their distribution range, but
195 the available information on both threats and distributions is highly variable (Sorvari, 2016).
196 The situation may be particularly critical in the countries at the southern margin of their
197 distribution (Italy, Greece, Turkey), where the effects of climate change are probably stronger
198 (Rebetez & Reinhard, 2008), and information limited (Kovats et al., 2014). Since in these
199 regions RWA are restricted to high elevations, the upward shift of populations will
200 progressively be limited by a lower habitat availability. Moreover, only species included in
201 official Red Lists (following the IUCN criteria) can be protected by law in some countries
202 (e.g. Belgium). Despite their ecological importance, RWA protection receives limited

203 attention, and no effort has been made to standardize protection measures at least in Europe.
204 The complexity of the legal status between and within countries, and the diversity of
205 protection measures taken by different States necessitate the development of broad-scale
206 conservation actions and the deployment of common, coordinated strategies.

207 208 **Suggestions for a strategic approach for a future European conservation framework**

209 *RWA species as conservation targets*

210 One key decision point is whether to focus conservation efforts on single species or to
211 consider the entire group as a target. Protecting single species has the great advantage of
212 allowing for individually tailored protection policies based on the specific needs of species or
213 local populations. This approach, however, has the associated cost of the harmonization of
214 legal frameworks across countries and requires considerable and informed expertise to
215 support the legal actions. The examples provided here suggest that this is not always the case
216 and that establishing legal protection across the entire group is a by far simpler task.
217 Moreover, protection at the species level also faces the many difficulties stemming from the
218 taxonomy of these species, starting from the fact that species identification may prove
219 difficult. Furthermore, should we protect hybrids? Hybridization occurs frequently in RWA
220 and is probably one of the mechanisms promoting speciation (Bernasconi et al., 2011). As
221 pointed out by Robinson and Stockan (2016), conservation measures should allow the
222 preservation of evolutionary processes like this, but how to translate it into laws? Targeting
223 the group could be an easier way to cope with such problems, although care should be taken

224 into distinguishing between autochthonous and introduced species, as the case *F. pratensis* –
225 *F. paralugubris* in Italy shows.

226 Moreover, the existence of a law protecting RWA does not guarantee effective
227 protection, as it is often difficult to define what the right protective measures are or should be.
228 When nests are located in areas where work is to be carried out (road widening, new
229 construction, etc.), the ant nests are usually moved. Unfortunately, the success rate of these
230 translocations is often low (Serttaş et al., 2020). Forestry practices must also be considered.
231 Even if nests are not directly destroyed during logging, their survival can be hampered by
232 indirect effects resulting from damages to their habitat (Sorvari & Hakkarainen, 2007;
233 Sorvari, 2016). However, these effects should be carefully considered case by case, as
234 different species can show different tolerance towards anthropogenic habitat disturbances
235 (Fitzpatrick et al., 2021). On the other side, the natural closure of the forest canopy can
236 eliminate the habitat suitable for RWA species (Vandegehuchte et al., 2017; Fitzpatrick et al.,
237 2021). Viable solutions must therefore be proposed to foresters to reconcile logging and the
238 protection of the RWA. In particular, to achieve effective conservation results, there is the
239 need to train foresters to apply ecologically sound management plans that take into account
240 specific RWA needs on a local base. Examples are the creation of forest gaps and clearings
241 where canopy closure is excessive or, at the other extreme, reducing the extensions of
242 clearcut areas to facilitate the recolonization of disturbed sites. Also, RWA colony foundation
243 can sometimes rely on temporary social parasitism of colonies of species belonging to the
244 subgenus *Serviformica* (Maeder et al., 2016). The protection of these species could, therefore,
245 facilitate the successful establishment of new RWA colonies.

246 *RWA as providers of species-rich microhabitats*

247 RWA host many myrmecophiles that thrive within their nest mounds (e.g. Frizzi et al., 2020),
248 some of which are obligate mutualists and cannot survive outside RWA nests (Robinson et
249 al., 2016). Some of these obligate guest species are listed in the IUCN Red List. Clearly,
250 conserving RWA is integral to protect these organisms, most of which belong to invertebrate
251 groups even less likely to have been assessed for conservation than the Hymenoptera
252 (Parmentier et al., 2014; Robinson et al., 2016). Since the conservation of a species strongly
253 depends on the conservation of its habitat, a thorough revision of the conservation status of
254 myrmecophilous species could be very useful in updating the conservation status of RWA.
255 Considering RWA not only as target species but also as providers of species-rich
256 microhabitats might prove a key strategy to conserve not only them, but all their associated
257 guest species.

259 **The need for updated information on distribution patterns**

260 Establishing a common and unambiguous legal framework is, however, only the first step
261 toward the effective protection of RWA. One of the main difficulties in achieving effective
262 conservation strategies is the non-systematic, and sometimes anecdotal information on their
263 distribution, making it impossible to monitor populations over time. In turn, the lack of such
264 data hinders the compilation of Red Lists based on the IUCN criteria. Moreover, habitat
265 requirements are often recorded at a local scale from presence-only recording, running into
266 false absence biases (but see Vandegehuchte et al., 2017). Switzerland is an important

267 exception, as a mapping of RWA mounds (especially *Formica lugubris* and *F. paralugubris*)
268 was carried out within the fourth National Forest Inventory
269 ([https://www.waldwissen.net/en/forest-ecology/forest-fauna/insects-invertebrates/red-wood-](https://www.waldwissen.net/en/forest-ecology/forest-fauna/insects-invertebrates/red-wood-ants-in-switzerland#c97108)
270 [ants-in-switzerland#c97108](https://www.waldwissen.net/en/forest-ecology/forest-fauna/insects-invertebrates/red-wood-ants-in-switzerland#c97108)). However, these data are incomplete, as the sampling design -
271 oriented to trees - did not allow the obtaining of suitable data for less frequent species such as
272 *F. rufa* and *F. polyctena*, or species living outside forests such as *F. pratensis*. Of course,
273 public engagement and citizen science projects contribute greatly to mapping efforts in
274 particular because RWA nests are usually conspicuous. Successful cases are the Swiss
275 “Ameisenzeit” (<https://www.ameisenzeit.ch/>) and “Opération fourmis” (Avril et al., 2019;
276 Freitag et al., 2020), Nest Quest in the United Kingdom ([https://www.buglife.org.uk/get-](https://www.buglife.org.uk/get-involved/surveys/nest-quest/)
277 [involved/surveys/nest-quest/](https://www.buglife.org.uk/get-involved/surveys/nest-quest/)), and the results obtained by Sorvari (2021) in Finland.
278 Furthermore, the activities of amateur associations such as the Ameisenschutzware
279 (<https://www.ameisenschutzware.de/>) in Germany contribute to the RWA mapping.
280 However, to enable a European-level risk assessment a common, standardized international
281 monitoring strategy for RWA would be vital and would allow the collection of data on RWA
282 habitat requirements in each country. Indeed, RWA occurrence correlates with many
283 environmental features (e.g. Berberich et al., 2016; Vandegehuchte et al., 2017).
284 Furthermore, such a scientifically coordinated monitoring scheme would allow reducing the
285 inevitable bias related to any survey involving lay organizations. This will finally allow the
286 determination of whether common protection strategies can be applied or more fine-grained
287 strategies are needed (e.g. between Northern and Southern countries).

288 We hope with this work will ignite the construction of an international network aimed
289 at the conservation of this important group, at least at the European level.

290 **Acknowledgments**

291 The authors wish to dedicate this work to the memory of Edward O. Wilson.

292

293 **Supporting Information**

294 Additional information is available online in the Supporting Information section at the end of
295 the online article. The authors are solely responsible for the content and functionality of these
296 materials. Queries (other than absence of the material) should be directed to the
297 corresponding author.

298

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446 **Figure legends**

447 **Figure 1.** Map of red wood ant (RWA) protection status across European countries.

