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

3 **Authors:** Paride Balzani, Wouter Dekoninck, Heike Feldhaar, Anne Freitag, Filippo, Frizzi, Filippo, Jan Frouz,,
4 Alberto Masoni, Elva Robinson, Jouni Sorvari, Giacomo Santini

5 **Abstract**

6 Red wood ants (RWA) are a group of keystone species widespread in temperate and boreal
7 forests of the Northern Hemisphere. Despite this, there is increasing evidence of local declines
8 and extinctions. Here, we give an overview of the current protection status of RWA throughout
9 Europe and review their IUCN threat classification. Only some RWA species have been
10 assessed at a global scale, while not all national red lists of the countries where RWA are
11 present include these species. In addition, different assessment criteria, inventory approaches,
12 and risk categories are used in different countries, and data deficiency is frequent. The
13 legislative protection is even more complex, with some countries protecting RWA implicitly
14 together with the wildlife fauna, while others explicitly protect the whole group or particular
15 species. This complexity often extends within countries, for example in Italy, where, outside
16 of the Alps, only the introduced species are protected, while the native ones in decline are not.
17 Therefore, an international, coordinated framework is needed for the protection of RWA.
18 However, this firstly requires that the conservation target should be defined. Due to the similar
19 morphology, complex taxonomy and frequent hybridization, protecting the whole RWA group
20 seems a more efficient strategy than protecting single species, though with a distinction
21 between autochthonous and introduced species. Second, an update of the current distribution
22 of RWA species is needed throughout Europe. Third, a protecting law cannot be effective
23 without the collaboration of forest managers, whose activity influences RWA habitat. Finally,
24 RWA mounds offer a peculiar microhabitat, hosting a multitude of taxa, some of which are

25 obligate myrmecophilous species listed in the IUCN Red List. Therefore, RWAs' role as
26 umbrella species could facilitate their protection if they are considered not only as target species
27 but also as providers of species-rich microhabitats.

28 **Introduction**

29 With at least 13 species described in the Palearctic and up to 19 species reported in North
30 America, red wood ants (RWA, i.e. species belonging to the *Formica rufa* group) are
31 ecologically dominant species (Stockan et al., 2016). RWA are considered to be keystone
32 species in temperate and boreal forests of Eurasia. Due to their large and long-lasting nests they
33 impact functioning of mainly forest ecosystems in many ways and across several trophic levels,
34 e.g. by controlling forest pest species (Trigos-Peral et al., 2021). Although RWA species are
35 still abundant in many parts of their distribution range, their conservation raises increasing
36 concerns (Dekoninck et al., 2010; Cherix et al., 2012; Breen, 2014; Mabelis & Korczyńska,
37 2016). Indeed, there is evidence of local decline or even extinction. For example, *F. uralensis*
38 went extinct in Switzerland (Cherix & Maddalena-Feller, 1986), while the scattered relict
39 populations of this species in France, Germany and Poland are facing high extinction risks
40 (Stankiewicz et al., 2005; Wegnez & Mourey, 2016). Moreover, local information is scattered
41 and sometimes contradictory. For example, *F. pratensis* is reported as extinct in mainland
42 Britain since at least 1988 (Nicholson, 1997). However, its presumed extinction is frequently
43 erroneously dated to 2005, the year of the last update for this species on the Bees Wasps and
44 Ants Recording Society (BWARS, www.bwars.com), although the page clearly reports that
45 “The last known nest, near Wareham, died out in 1987”.

46 The main threats for these species have already been discussed in detail by Sorvari
47 (2016). However, it is worth stressing that the relative importance of these threats varies
48 considerably in different parts of their Palearctic distribution range. In the southernmost
49 countries RWA are restricted to mountain areas, whereas at northernmost sites they also occur
50 at lower altitudes (Stockan et al., 2016), and threatening factors may thus differ. Additionally,
51 their problematic taxonomy, with some species identifiable only through molecular analysis

52 (Bernasconi et al., 2010), the presence of cryptic species (Bernasconi et al., 2011; Seifert, 1996,
53 2021) and widespread hybridization (Seifert et al., 2010; Beresford et al., 2017), makes it
54 difficult to efficiently assess population size and distribution.

55 Despite their ecological importance and widespread distribution, Hymenoptera, with
56 the exception of wild bees (Kleijn et al., 2015; Drossart & Gérard, 2020), lag behind other
57 insect taxa, like Lepidoptera or Coleoptera, as conservation targets (Leandro et al., 2017). Ants
58 (particularly RWA) were an early group to be defined as vulnerable and worthy of protection
59 (Wells et al., 1983). Given the importance of RWA in forest pest management, the European
60 Council recommended as early as 1965 that all the member states adopt legal provisions for
61 protecting these species, highlighting their decline and the need for their conservation (Pavan,
62 1981). However, more than 50 years later there is no unique legal framework, and contradictory
63 measures are sometimes taken. The importance of the focus on RWA protection extends
64 beyond the conservation of these species per se. Indeed, they are important ecosystem
65 engineers and umbrella species (e.g. Balzani et al., 2021a), so their conservation is relevant
66 also for a wide range of other taxa. Moreover, RWA are perfect flagship species, providing an
67 important example for the establishment of a supranational scheme aimed at the conservation
68 of an invertebrate group. In this paper, we review the legal aspect of RWA protection and
69 discuss how conserving these species must have support in national laws in Europe.

70 We will briefly review their position in the IUCN red list, then give an overview of their
71 protection at the European level and, finally, we provide examples representative of the many
72 contradictions and paradoxes that characterize the protection of these species. The main aim of
73 this paper is to provide a wide overview of RWA protection in Europe by searching information
74 for all the countries entirely included in Europe, with some in-depth analyses of specific cases,

75 of which the importance extends beyond their specific limitations, as they can be paradigmatic
76 of the difficulties encountered in the protection of many other invertebrate taxa.

77

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

79 *RWA protection at national level*

80 Several European countries protect RWA (Figure 1; Appendix S1). Some of them, such as
81 Austria, implicitly protect them by protecting all the wildlife fauna, while others explicitly
82 mention RWA, at least as a group. For example, in Estonia and Poland, all RWA are protected
83 species, and in Hungary RWA are protected and their nests assigned a monetary value. In
84 Switzerland, RWA are listed as protected since 1966 and all species are explicitly included in
85 the Annex 3 of protected species in the Ordinance on the Protection of Nature and Landscape
86 (OPN) of the Swiss Federal Council. In Germany, besides being protected by the Federal
87 Nature Conservation Act (Bundesnaturschutzgesetz, BNatSchG) like all wildlife, all mound-
88 building RWA are additionally listed as especially protected in Germany (like all wild bees and
89 a few wasp species) under the Federal Species Protection Ordinance
90 (Bundesartenschutzverordnung, BArtSchV), which includes a list of protected species. It is
91 thus prohibited to disturb or destroy their nests or remove workers or other life-stages.
92 Moreover, *F. polyclena* x *rufa* hybrids are implicitly protected as well since the parental species
93 are protected. In Belgium, all RWA species were protected by a law of 1980. Later, Belgium
94 legislation was organized at a Federal level and in 2009 the governments of the Flanders and
95 Wallonia published a law in which three (for Flanders) and two (for Wallonia) species were
96 protected, whereas Brussels protects only one species (*F. polyclena*). Finally, some other
97 countries explicitly prioritize the protection of particular RWA species. In Bulgaria, some
98 RWA species have been protected since 1959, though the obsolete scientific names included

99 have never been updated, and *F. rufa* is protected by the 2002 Bulgarian Biodiversity Act. In
100 the United Kingdom, *F. pratensis* is a British Action Plan (BAP) 2007 priority species, i.e.
101 those species “that were identified as being the most threatened and requiring conservation
102 action”, being also listed in the Species of Principal Importance in England. Also, *F. aquilonia*
103 is included in the Northern Ireland priority species list.

104 *The Italian paradox*

105 Italy is paradigmatic of what happens in the countries at the southern limit of RWA distribution,
106 where less information is available, and public awareness is lower. In Italy, these species are
107 typical dwellers of the Alps (Pavan et al., 1971), where they occur at elevations between 450
108 and 2000 meters. However, this information dates back to several decades ago and it is to be
109 taken cautiously, since a shift of the distribution area towards higher elevations due to warming
110 as documented in other insect taxa (Hagen et al., 2007; Moret et al., 2016) is possible. Further
111 south, the situation is more complex. The only autochthonous species outside of the Alps is
112 *Formica pratensis*, occurring also in the Apennine mountains. The actual distribution and
113 abundance of this species are however unknown, and the few existing reports are outdated
114 publications (Pavan et al., 1971), personal observations, and sparse, often unconfirmed notes
115 on citizen science platforms (e.g. iNaturalist). It is clear, however, that some of the Apennine
116 populations have recently disappeared or significantly decreased in number (G. Santini
117 personal observation). This declining trend is in line with the tendency observed in other
118 countries, such as Switzerland, Belgium, Romania and Turkey (Dekoninck et al., 2003; Freitag
119 et al., 2008; Kiss & Kobori, 2010; Çamlitepe & Aksoy, 2019), as well as the British mainland
120 (Nicholson, 1997).

121 This situation is further complicated by the fact that since the 1950s to 1980s, several
122 introductions were carried out by transplanting entire RWA nests (mostly belonging to the

123 species *F. paralugubris*; Masoni et al., 2019) from the Alps to the Apennine mountains as
124 biological control agents (Pavan, 1959). These introductions had varying success, with some
125 populations that are developing traits of invasiveness, impacting the native fauna (Frizzi et al.,
126 2018; Balzani et al., 2021b), but also other taxa (Di Nuzzo et al. 2022).

127 In Italy, no national law protects RWA (nor any other ant), despite an aborted attempt
128 to include the whole group in a law in 2001 (N. 5013 – Rules for the protection of the
129 heterotherm fauna), which was not approved. Instead, each local Authority (Region) legislates
130 on the matter. Several Regions grant some type of protection (Appendix S2) either by generally
131 protecting ant nests, mentioning the “*Fomica rufa* group”, or specifying the names of some
132 species (sometimes with misspelled names). Interestingly, one regional law currently grants
133 protection to other ant species, including *Formicoxenus nitidulus*, an obligate myrmecophilous
134 ant listed as “Vulnerable” at a Global level (IUCN Red List) cohabiting within the nests of
135 various RWA species (Härkönen & Sorvari, 2017). Similarly, in the United Kingdom, *F.*
136 *nitidulus* is a BAP priority species for conservation, but its wood ant hosts are not protected.
137 How to protect an obligate myrmecophile without protecting its host ant is unfortunately not
138 specified.

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

146 *RWA protection at international level*

147 According to the IUCN Red List (accessed 8th October 2021), RWA species are classified as
148 “Near Threatened” at a global level, but only some species (*F. rufa*, *F. lugubris*, *F. polycтена*,
149 *F. aquilonia*, *F. pratensis*, and *F. uralensis*) have been assessed. Previous assessments (from
150 1983 to 1994) classified all the above RWA species as “Vulnerable” except *F. uralensis* that
151 was classified as “Indeterminate” (from 1986 to 1994).

152 RWA (and in general, ants) are not included in the European Red List
153 (https://ec.europa.eu/environment/nature/conservation/species/redlist/index_en.htm, accessed
154 11th October 2021). On the national or regional level, the situation is more complex. Not all
155 European countries include ants, or even insects, in national red lists
156 (<https://www.nationalredlist.org/>, accessed 11th October 2021). For example, in Ireland, no red
157 list has been produced that covers ants at all, even though all RWA species present are in urgent
158 need of local protection (Breen, 2014). Moreover, when RWA are considered, there is no
159 consensus across different national red lists on which species to include, assessment criteria
160 differ, some risk categories are not fully comparable, and data deficiency is frequent (Appendix
161 S3). In addition, it is unclear how hybrids, an often-occurring phenomenon in RWA, should be
162 treated. For example, only the provisional Red List of the ants of Flanders explicitly assessed
163 hybrids (*F. rufa x polycтена*; Dekoninck et al., 2003, 2005).

164 The lack of a comprehensive assessment of the risks faced by RWA species is not
165 surprising, as all ants suffer from the same lack of information. Only 149 out of the
166 approximately 14,000 globally known living ant species
167 (<https://www.antweb.org/statsPage.do>, accessed 4th January 2022) are listed in the IUCN Red
168 List. For all of them, the last official assessment dates back to 1996, and needs therefore to be
169 updated. RWA currently face increasing threats throughout their distribution range, but the
170 available information on both threats and distributions is highly variable (Sorvari, 2016). The

171 situation may be particularly critical in the countries at the southern margin of their distribution
172 (Italy, Greece, Turkey), where the effects of climate change are probably stronger (Rebetez &
173 Reinhard, 2008), and information limited (Kovats et al., 2014). Since in these regions RWA
174 are restricted to high elevations, the upward shift of populations will progressively be limited
175 by a lower habitat availability. Moreover, only species included in official Red Lists (following
176 the IUCN criteria) can be protected by law in some countries (e.g. Belgium). Despite their
177 ecological importance, RWA protection receives limited attention, and no effort has been made
178 to standardize protection measures at least in Europe. The complexity of the legal status
179 between and within countries, and the diversity of protection measures taken by different States
180 necessitate the development of broad-scale conservation actions and the deployment of
181 common, coordinated strategies.

182

183 **Suggestions for a strategic approach for a future European conservation framework**

184 *RWA species as conservation targets*

185 One key decision point is whether to focus conservation efforts on single species or to consider
186 the entire group as a target. Protecting single species has the great advantage of allowing for
187 individually tailored protection policies based on the specific needs of species or local
188 populations. This approach, however, has the associated cost of the harmonization of legal
189 frameworks across countries and requires considerable and informed expertise to support the
190 legal actions. The examples provided here suggest that this is not always the case and that
191 establishing legal protection across the entire group is a by far simpler task. Moreover,
192 protection at the species level also faces the many difficulties stemming from the taxonomy of
193 these species, starting from the fact that species identification may prove difficult. Furthermore,
194 should we protect hybrids? Hybridization occurs frequently in RWA and is probably one of the

195 mechanisms promoting speciation (Bernasconi et al., 2011). As pointed out by Robinson and
196 Stockan (2016), conservation measures should allow the preservation of evolutionary processes
197 like this, but how to translate it into laws? Targeting the group could be an easier way to cope
198 with such problems, although care should be taken into distinguishing between autochthonous
199 and introduced species, as the case *F. pratensis* – *F. paralugubris* in Italy shows.

200 Moreover, the existence of a law protecting RWA does not guarantee effective
201 protection, as it is often difficult to define what the right protective measures are or should be.
202 When nests are located in areas where work is to be carried out (road widening, new
203 construction, etc.), the ant nests are usually moved. Unfortunately, the success rate of these
204 translocations is often low (Serttaş et al., 2020). Forestry practices must also be considered.
205 Even if nests are not directly destroyed during logging, their survival can be hampered by
206 indirect effects resulting from damages to their habitat (Sorvari & Hakkarainen, 2007; Sorvari,
207 2016). However, these effects should be carefully considered case by case, as different species
208 can show different tolerance towards anthropogenic habitat disturbances (Fitzpatrick et al.,
209 2021). On the other side, the natural closure of the forest canopy can eliminate the habitat
210 suitable for RWA species (Vandegehuchte et al., 2017; Fitzpatrick et al., 2021). Viable
211 solutions must therefore be proposed to foresters to reconcile logging and the protection of the
212 RWA. In particular, to achieve effective conservation results, there is the need to train foresters
213 to apply ecologically sound management plans that take into account specific RWA needs on
214 a local base. Examples are the creation of forest gaps and clearings where canopy closure is
215 excessive or, at the other extreme, reducing the extensions of clearcut areas to facilitate the
216 recolonization of disturbed sites. Also, RWA colony foundation can sometimes rely on
217 temporary social parasitism of colonies of species belonging to the subgenus *Serviformica*
218 (Maeder et al., 2016). The protection of these species could, therefore, facilitate the successful
219 establishment of new RWA colonies.

220 *RWA as providers of species-rich microhabitats*

221 RWA host many myrmecophiles that thrive within their nest mounds (e.g. Frizzi et al., 2020),
222 some of which are obligate mutualists and cannot survive outside RWA nests (Robinson et al.,
223 2016). Some of these obligate guest species are listed in the IUCN Red List. Clearly, conserving
224 RWA is integral to protect these organisms, most of which belong to invertebrate groups even
225 less likely to have been assessed for conservation than the Hymenoptera (Parmentier et al.,
226 2014; Robinson et al., 2016). Since the conservation of a species strongly depends on the
227 conservation of its habitat, a thorough revision of the conservation status of myrmecophilous
228 species could be very useful in updating the conservation status of RWA. Considering RWA
229 not only as target species but also as providers of species-rich microhabitats might prove a key
230 strategy to conserve not only them, but all their associated guest species.

231

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

233 Establishing a common and unambiguous legal framework is, however, only the first step
234 toward the effective protection of RWA. One of the main difficulties in achieving effective
235 conservation strategies is the non-systematic, and sometimes anecdotal information on their
236 distribution, making it impossible to monitor populations over time. In turn, the lack of such
237 data hinders the compilation of Red Lists based on the IUCN criteria. Moreover, habitat
238 requirements are often recorded at a local scale from presence-only recording, running into
239 false absence biases (but see Vandegehuchte et al., 2017). Switzerland is an important
240 exception, as a mapping of RWA mounds (especially *Formica lugubris* and *F. paralugubris*)
241 was carried out within the fourth National Forest Inventory
242 ([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)
243 [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 -

244 oriented to trees - did not allow the obtaining of suitable data for less frequent species such as
245 *F. rufa* and *F. polycтена*, or species living outside forests such as *F. pratensis*. Of course, public
246 engagement and citizen science projects contribute greatly to mapping efforts in particular
247 because RWA nests are usually conspicuous. Successful cases are the Swiss “Ameisenzeit”
248 (<https://www.ameisenzeit.ch/>) and “Opération fourmis” (Avril et al., 2019; Freitag et al., 2020),
249 Nest Quest in the United Kingdom ([https://www.buglife.org.uk/get-involved/surveys/nest-](https://www.buglife.org.uk/get-involved/surveys/nest-quest/)
250 [quest/](https://www.buglife.org.uk/get-involved/surveys/nest-quest/)), and the results obtained by Sorvari (2021) in Finland. Furthermore, the activities of
251 amateur associations such as the Ameisenschutzware (<https://www.ameisenschutzware.de/>)
252 in Germany contribute to the RWA mapping. However, to enable a European-level risk
253 assessment a common, standardized international monitoring strategy for RWA would be vital
254 and would allow the collection of data on RWA habitat requirements in each country. Indeed,
255 RWA occurrence correlates with many environmental features (e.g. Berberich et al., 2016;
256 Vandegehuchte et al., 2017). Furthermore, such a scientifically coordinated monitoring scheme
257 would allow reducing the inevitable bias related to any survey involving lay organizations. This
258 will finally allow the determination of whether common protection strategies can be applied,
259 or more fine-grained strategies are needed (e.g. between Northern and Southern countries).

260 We hope with this work to ignite the construction of an international network aimed at
261 the conservation of this important group, at least at the European level.

262 **Supporting Information**

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

267

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413 **Figure legends**

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