

# It is time to ensure legal protection for non-protected native Italian small mammals

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## Abstract

19 The Italian national law 157/1992 protects all species of mammals and birds, with the exception of  
20 rats, mice, voles and moles (totally 20 native species), which have been long considered responsible  
21 for the spread of human diseases and damage to crops, forests, and ecosystems. These species are  
22 also excluded from all Annexes of the Habitats Directive, leaving several small mammals without  
23 legal protection in Italy. Seven species are endemic or subendemic in Italy, with their distribution  
24 often limited to a few regions (e.g., *Microtus nebrodensis*, *M. brachycercus* and *Talpa romana*) or to  
25 threatened habitats (e.g., *Arvicola italicus*). In this work, we summarise open questions about the lack  
26 of protection for small Italian mammals and analyse their status in the country. In contrast to previous  
27 beliefs, our investigation showed that most non-protected rodents and moles play pivotal ecological  
28 roles in food chains, besides acting as environmental bioindicators and ecosystem-service providers.  
29 Three species are classified as Near Threatened in the Italian red list and other three are considered  
30 Data Deficient. The harvest mouse, *Micromys minutus*, is the only rodent whose risk of extinction  
31 has worsened over the past 10 years in Italy. Considering the high number of endemic and subendemic  
32 taxa, Italy has full responsibility for the conservation of its unique small mammal fauna, claiming  
33 their protection under both national and European regulations, and promoting research and  
34 monitoring campaigns to fill knowledge gaps on their biology, ecology, threats and ensure an  
35 adequate conservation status.

36 *Keywords:* Conservation, legislation, protection, Rodentia, Talpidae.

## 37 Introduction

39 The first step to ensure the conservation of species is to give them legal protection. National and  
40 international laws, directives, and agreements protect many species at different levels, forbidding or  
41 regulating their exploitation, trade, or even guaranteeing their total protection (Male and Bean, 2005;  
42 Mooers et al., 2007). In Europe, the Habitats Directive provides the highest level of protection for  
43 species (Directive 92/43/CEE, hereinafter HD). Species listed in Annex IV are strictly protected (art.  
44 2); for those listed in Annex II, in addition to direct protection parts of their habitats are also protected  
45 as Special Areas of Conservation (SACs) included in the Natura 2000 network. The inclusion of a  
46 species in the HD aims to maintain them in a favourable conservation status. Species listed in Annex  
47 V may be exploited but are subject to management measures. Even species considered a priority for  
48 conservation and listed in Annexes II/IV, such as the case of the grey wolf (*Canis lupus*), may be  
49 regulated if there is no satisfactory alternative and management is not detrimental to the maintenance  
50 of populations at favourable conservation status (Epstein et al. 2019; European Commission 2021).  
51 Including a species in the HD implies that it must be monitored regularly, implementing conservation  
52 measures when necessary. As a result, most listed species have been the subject of sufficient research  
53 to provide knowledge for effective conservation measures. For instance, research efforts on the hazel  
54 dormouse (*Muscardinus avellanarius*), as measured by the number of published articles, increased  
55 significantly after its inclusion in the HD (Lang et al., 2022). On the other hand, research efforts on  
56 the garden dormouse (*Eliomys quercinus*), probably the European mammal that has lost the most  
57 significant proportion of its range in recent decades (Bertolino, 2017) but excluded by the HD, halved  
58 after the year 2000 (Lang et al., 2022).

59 At a more local (national) scale, the Italian national law n. 157/1992 declares as protected all  
60 mammals and birds present with populations within the national territories. However, moles, rats,  
61 mice and voles are explicitly excluded from this legal protection (art. 2.2). Nonetheless, the text of  
62 the law does not provide an exhaustive list of species for which control is allowed, and does not  
63 consider the diversity of these taxa and their species-specific conservation status. While rats (*Rattus*

spp.) and house mice (*Mus domesticus*) are considered as species introduced into the country, the other 20 species are native and, in some cases, endemic or subendemic (Bertolino et al., 2015; Loy et al., 2019). These species are regarded as agricultural pests, and the exclusion from protection aims at allowing their direct control without the need for authorization from local authorities, as instead foreseen for the other species (art. 19). For instance, different *Microtus* species are known to damage horticultural crops and orchards (Santini, 1983; Capizzi and Santini, 2007). However, the perception of the negative impact of these species as pests commonly overshadows their pivotal ecological roles. For example, seed-caching mice and voles are known to be involved in seed dispersal, thus positively affecting plant species' long-term survival and forest regeneration (Jensen and Nielsen 1986; Gómez et al. 2008). Small mammals are also a primary food source for many predators, influencing their population dynamics (Korpimäki and Norrdahl 1989; Byrom et al., 2014; Grendelmeier et al., 2018). This work aims to review the conservation status of Italian small mammals not protected by national laws, and provide data and arguments highlighting the urgent need for their protection.

### Overview of native non-protected Italian small mammals

The national law N. 157/1992 excludes from protection the listed taxa twenty native species belonging to the family Talpidae (moles, three species), Cricetidae (voles, twelve species), and Muridae (mice, five species) (Table 1, Loy et al., 2019); other three murids – house mouse, black rat (*Rattus rattus*) and brown rat (*R. norvegicus*) – are introduced and thus are not considered here. Four non-protected species (*Talpa romana*, *Arvicola italicus*, *Microtus nebrodensis* and *Microtus brachycercus*) are endemic to Italy. Three species (*Talpa caeca*, *Microtus multiplex*, and *Microtus savii*) are subendemic, as most of their range is limited to Italy, extending to neighbouring countries for a small part (Loy et al., 2019). Therefore, for these species, Italy is responsible for their long-term survival. According to the most recent Italian red list (Rondinini et al., 2022; Table 1), *Arvicola italicus*, *Chionomys nivalis*, and *Micromys minutus* are classified as Near Threatened, while

90 *Apodemus alpicola*, *Arvicola amphibius*, and *Talpa caeca* are considered Data Deficient indicating  
91 an insufficient knowledge to assess their status. *Micromys minutus* is the only rodent species that has  
92 seen its status worsen from the previous assessment 10 years earlier, when it was rated as Least  
93 Concern (Rondinini et al., 2013; Table 1).

94 An overview of these species is presented below, with comments on their respective conservation  
95 status and a focus on knowledge gaps.

96 *Talpa caeca*, *T. romana*, *T. europaea*

97 Italy hosts three species of moles, with remarkable differences in their extent of occurrence and degree  
98 of population fragmentation (Amori et al., 2008). The Eurasian common mole *T. europaea* occurs in  
99 northern and central Italy; the larger and more robust Roman mole *T. romana* is endemic to south-  
100 central Italy and parapatric to *T. europaea*; and the small-sized blind mole *T. caeca*, occurs in the  
101 Balkans and Italy with a discontinuous and fragmented distribution. In Italy, this species is sympatric  
102 but rarely syntopic to both *T. romana* and *T. europaea*, whereas, in the Balkans, it co-occurs with *T.*  
103 *stankovici* and *T. europaea*. Recent molecular investigations suggest mole diversity in Europe and  
104 Italy might be even higher. The Italian lineage of *T. caeca* was found distinct from the Balkan lineage  
105 (Colangelo et al., 2010). The time of divergence of the two main lineages within *T. caeca* was  
106 estimated to be at least 1 Mya, a value close to the maximum limit of intraspecific divergence  
107 (Bannikova et al., 2015). Similarly, the Italian lineage of *T. europaea* is genetically well distinct from  
108 the European lineage (Feuda et al., 2015). Also in this case the separation of the two lineages was  
109 dated before the onset of the main Pleistocene glaciations (approximately 0.7 Mya), a separation time  
110 suggesting a long and independent evolution of the Italian clade. According to the level of genetic  
111 divergence observed, the apparent restriction of geneflow and, in the case of *T. caeca* the clearly  
112 disjunct distribution, both the Italian lineage of *T. caeca* and *T. europaea* can be considered as  
113 putative Evolutionary Significant Units (ESU; Moritz, 1994) waiting for further investigations to  
114 fully understand the extent and significance of their diversity respect to their respective conspecific

116 lineages. Despite this high diversity and biogeographic complex interactions, all Italian moles are still  
117 considered pests, thus lacking legal protection. This is related to a common belief that moles damage  
118 gardens and crops and to the conviction that they are still widespread. However, both beliefs are false  
119 and misleading. First, it should be underlined that moles are strictly insectivores and do not feed on  
120 any plant material, fruits, flowers, or roots (Amori et al. 2008). Thus, their negative impact on gardens  
121 and crops should only be evaluated in relation to the tunnels that might alter the irrigation systems  
122 and molehills that may occur on well-kept lawns and, for example, golf courses, as well as horse  
123 racing courses.

124 Population size and abundance of moles are challenging to estimate, and the only available data derive  
125 from indirect signs of species occurrence, i.e., the typical molehills. However, molehills cannot be  
126 distinguished among species. Whereas they can relatively easily be attributed to one of the two  
127 parapatric species based on their location, i.e., *T. europaea* in north-central and *T. romana* in south-  
128 central Italy, the occurrence of the scattered *T. caeca* is far less easy to detect, being this species either  
129 allopatric or sympatric to both *T. europaea* and *T. romana*. Moreover, the common belief that in Italy  
130 *T. caeca* is restricted and specialised to live at the highest altitudes of the Alps and the Apennine  
131 Mountain chains has been recently questioned by Loy et al. (2017), stressing the low knowledge of  
132 the actual status of blind mole populations in Italy. Considering the scanty distributional data, there  
133 is the urgent need for a systematic survey of *T. caeca* and *T. romana* in Italy.

#### 134 *Arvicola italicus* and *Arvicola amphibius*

135 Molecular and morphometric studies indicated that the Italian water vole *Arvicola italicus* is a species  
136 distinct from other European water vole populations (Castiglia et al., 2016). It is, therefore, an  
137 endemic species distributed in continental Italy. Despite a potentially wide area of distribution,  
138 available records are limited, and there are indications of population decline at the local level  
139 (Castiglia et al., 2016). The European water vole *Arvicola amphibius* is reported only for the north-  
140 eastern part of the country.

142 European water voles are widespread, but populations are declining in some countries, particularly in  
143 Great Britain, where it is considered one of the most endangered mammals (Mathews et al., 2018).  
144 The species' decline is connected to the loss of wetlands after agriculture intensification and  
145 urbanisation expansion (Jefferies et al., 1989; Dean et al., 2016). A further threat is represented by  
146 the introduced American mink (*Neovison vison*), which predates water voles and induces the  
147 fragmentation of residual populations (Aars et al., 2001). The same threats are present in Italy.  
148 Wetlands are declining, the American mink is present with established populations in northern and  
149 central Italy (Loy et al., 2019), and the Italian water vole is one of its main preys (Mori and Mazza,  
150 2019).

151 A further conservation issue is the use of rodenticides, commonly used against the Norway rat *Rattus*  
152 *norvegicus*, which often inhabits riparian habitats, but also against coypu *Myocastor coypus*, although  
153 illegally. This threat could explain the scarcity of both *Arvicola* species or their disappearance in  
154 suburban and agricultural areas, where they were once widespread (Capizzi and Santini, 2007).

### 155 *Chionomys nivalis*

156 Referring to the principle of priority, Kryštufek et al. (2022) considered *Chionomys syriacus* the valid  
157 name combination for the European snow vole. To fix the nomenclature, the authors sent an  
158 application to the International Commission on Zoological Nomenclature (Case 3859), which is still  
159 under evaluation. The European snow vole is a microtine rodent considered a glacial relict which  
160 depends on the fractured rocky substrate (Kryštufek and Shenbrot, 2022) and is a good bioindicator  
161 in mountain environments (Metcheva et al., 2008). Castiglia et al. (2009) found six distinct molecular  
162 lineages of the European snow vole, two of which exclusive of the Italian peninsula and distinct from  
163 other lineages by a large number of mutations. The species is common in the Alps and rare and  
164 localised in the Apennines (Janeau and Aulagnier, 1997; Amori et al., 2008). The snow vole inhabits  
165 rocky areas not only at high altitudes but is also found at sea level. Its ecological niche is represented  
166 by petricolic soils, primarily in mid- and high-mountain environments. These soils, at high altitudes,

168 mitigate the effects of strong temperature fluctuations both during the day and throughout the seasons  
169 and allow the snow vole to live in habitats with severe temperatures (Nappi, 2002; Luque-Larena et  
170 al. 2002).

171 The species is listed as “Near Threatened” in the Italian red list (Rondinini et al. 2022; Tab. 1);  
172 however, little is known about populations in central-southern Apennine (Amori et al., 2008). The  
173 snow vole has an intrinsic sensitivity to global changes: 1) it is strictly herbivorous and predominantly  
174 uses high-altitude grasslands as foraging areas; 2) in Italy, it has a limited distribution range; 3) it is  
175 mainly adapted to extreme environments. Due to its ecological specialisation, it is potentially  
176 vulnerable to habitat changes (Yoccoz and Ims, 1999; Bertolino et al. 2014). In this regard, studies  
177 have highlighted that climate change will be more intense and rapid in high-altitude areas, leading to  
178 an upward shift in vegetation due to global warming (Vitasse et al., 2021). Moreover, land-use change  
179 processes affect the foothill and montane zones, especially in the Italian Alps. In these areas, attention  
180 should be focused on preserving its prime habitat characterised by petricolous soils.

### 181 *Microtus* species

182 The Italian voles of the genus *Microtus* have undergone a major revision in recent years, with new  
183 taxa identified (see Galleni et al., 1994; Castiglia et al., 2008). The first group to be examined  
184 comprised species with a distinctly fossorial habit, sometimes included in the subgenus *Terricola*  
185 (Carleton and Musser, 2005). This group is the most significant for Italy in terms of both distribution  
186 and number of species, some of which are endemic or subendemic. These species are often the target  
187 of control actions in agricultural contexts due to significant economic damage to orchards (especially  
188 apple and citrus orchards) and horticultural crops (severe damage was found in artichoke stands in  
189 southern Italy). The most important damage is done by *Microtus savii* (Caroli et al., 2000; Ranchelli  
190 et al., 2016). However, given the recent subdivision of the taxon into at least three distinct species  
191 (*M. savii* present in northern and central Italy, *M. brachycercus* southern and central Italy, and *M.*  
192 *nebrodensis* Sicily), the damage must be attributed to the appropriate species, depending on the area



194 in which it occurs. Other species in this group (*M. multiplex*, *M. liechtheinsteini*, and *M. subterraneus*)  
195 are of no economic importance, partly because of relatively limited distribution. However, it must be  
196 considered that the distinction of these species by external morphology alone is difficult: therefore,  
197 protection should be extended to all species. Similar considerations apply to the species in the second  
198 group, which exhibit more superficial activity, sometimes included in the subgenus *Microtus*, namely  
199 *Microtus arvalis* and *M. levernediti*. Their economic impact is somewhat limited, and their distinction  
200 is also rather difficult from the external morphology. These damages, often economically significant,  
201 have justified control activities in the past, conducted mainly with anticoagulant rodenticides (Capizzi  
202 et al., 2014). Results, however, are not always satisfactory in terms of damage reduction (Capizzi and  
203 Santini, 2007). Furthermore, the use of rodenticides carries significant risks of secondary intoxication  
204 for the voles' numerous predators (mainly carnivores and nocturnal and diurnal raptors, e.g.  
205 carnivores, Oliva-Vidal et al., 2022, owls, Bertolino et al., 2001). These applications have  
206 significantly decreased following regulatory revisions on biocide use in recent years. Most *Microtus*  
207 species do not have conservation risks, being common and widespread in agroforestry ecosystems,  
208 open areas and pastures, sometimes beyond the limit of forest vegetation (Temple and Terry, 2007).  
209 For some Italian species, however, data are quite limited (Amori et al., 2008). Nevertheless, it is  
210 believed that their protection would have little impact on agricultural activities, as i) the application  
211 of rodenticides is time-consuming and their use is limited despite the intensity of damage, and ii)  
212 rodenticides patented for use against voles have almost disappeared from the market. In conclusion,  
213 we stress that the protection of microtines would have a positive effect on predators by reducing the  
214 risk of secondary intoxication, with minor (or no) economic consequence on agricultural practices.

#### 215 *Clethrionomys glareolus* (*Myodes glareolus*)

216 Two genera (*Clethrionomys* and *Myodes*) have been used to identify the bank vole; recently,  
217 Kryštufek et al. (2022) supported the need to return to the old *Clethrionomys glareolus*. The species  
218 is widespread throughout most of Europe's temperate climate and boreal forests (Amori et al., 2008).

220 The species inhabits broadleaved and coniferous woodlands, from plains up to 2,300 metres in the  
221 mountains, tree scrub, parks, hedgerows. It has no economic impact on human activities, neither on  
222 field crops nor on orchards (Capizzi and Santini, 2007). In the Italian Peninsula, there are five distinct  
223 evolutionary lineages: one widespread between the Alps and northern Italy, one distributed mainly  
224 throughout the north and central Apennines, a slightly differentiated lineage restricted to the Apulian  
225 region (Gargano promontory), and an high differentiated lineage in Calabria region (Colangelo et al.,  
226 2012; Chiocchio et al., 2019) where there are two distinct subspecies: *M. glareolus curcio* in the Sila  
227 Massif and *M. glareolus hallucalis* in the Aspromonte Massif (Amori et al., 2008). The Calabrian  
228 clade is characterised by a strong ancient (early Pleistocene) genetic isolation and divergence (based  
229 on mtDNA) from all other *M. glareolus* lineages (Colangelo et al., 2012; Filipi et al., 2015).  
230 Therefore, the Calabrian lineage could be considered as an ESU, deserving particular attention  
231 (Colangelo et al, 2010; Chiocchio et al., 2019). This lineage identified in southern Italy pose a  
232 conservation issue linked to the need to protect taxa below the species level (but close to the  
233 interspecific boundary), that have a restricted distribution.

234 *Apodemus agrarius*, *A. sylvaticus* and *A. flavicollis*

235 The striped field mouse *A. agrarius* exhibits the most extended distribution range of the genus  
236 *Apodemus*, with an extensive but disjunct range covering almost the entire Palearctic, divided by the  
237 dry and mountainous areas of central Asia (e.g., Mongolia). Nonetheless, extensive sampling across  
238 the whole range confirmed that the species is likely to represent a single taxon (Kareseva et al., 1992,  
239 Yalkovskaya et al., 2022). The wood mouse *A. sylvaticus* and the yellow-necked mouse *A. flavicollis*  
240 are mostly present in the western Palearctic, with large ranges extending throughout Europe. None of  
241 these species have any economic impact on human activities, with the exception of limited local  
242 impacts on forest sowings and nurseries (Capizzi and Santini, 2007).

243 In Italy, *A. agrarius* shows a relatively small range restricted to north-eastern regions and an  
244 apparently isolated population in Lombardy (Loy et al., 2019), whereas *A. sylvaticus* and *A. flavicollis*

246 are widespread in the whole Peninsula, although the yellow-necked mouse is absent from the most  
247 urbanised and intensively cultivated areas. The wood mouse is also present in both major and some  
248 minor islands. The Sicilian population of the wood mouse appears to be genetically very differentiated  
249 and highly variable with respect to other populations (Michaux et al., 2003). This emphasises the  
250 importance of Sicily as a 'hot spot' for the wood mouse's intraspecific genetic diversity and suggests  
251 this taxon could require taxonomic revision.

252 From a conservation perspective, high-resolution genetic sampling indicates that *A. agrarius* is  
253 sensitive to urbanisation (Gortat et al., 2015) as, despite its ability to persist in cities across Europe  
254 (Santini et al., 2019), urban populations are genetically isolated and thus more prone to local  
255 extinction. *Apodemus agrarius* also occurs in agricultural landscapes, where its populations are  
256 favoured by organic management practices and the maintenance of more complex landscape  
257 structures such as hedgerows and tree lines (Fischer et al., 2011). Similarly, *A. sylvaticus* is also  
258 favoured by the maintenance of landscape complexity (e.g., Fischer et al., 2011, Panzacchi et al.,  
259 2010), and restoration of semi-natural habitats can represent a significant environmental measure for  
260 the species' conservation in agricultural landscapes (Balestrieri et al., 2017). Moreover, the wood  
261 mouse appears to be potentially affected by urbanisation, showing low adaptability to highly artificial  
262 habitats, thus underlying the need to preserve natural areas within urban environments (Gomes et al.,  
263 2011). Unlike *A. agrarius* and *A. sylvaticus*, *A. flavicollis* is more strictly associated with wooded  
264 areas and is commonly known as a forest specialist. The species generally tolerates moderate wooded  
265 habitat loss and fragmentation (Marsh et al., 2001; Lešo et al., 2014; Sozio and Mortelliti, 2015).  
266 Forest management seems to have a controversial role in affecting the occurrence, population density  
267 and survival of the species, with effects depending on the intensity and the type of silvicultural  
268 practices, e.g., clear-cutting, coppicing, artificial plantation (Capizzi and Luiselli, 1996; Lešo et al.,  
269 2014; Gasperini et al., 2016). Finally, *A. flavicollis* is susceptible to agricultural land use  
270 intensification (Gentili et al., 2014). Although urbanisation and replacement of natural habitats with  
271 cropland are present in Italy, where forest management and silvicultural practices are also widely

273 applied, the ecological and biological traits of *A. agrarius*, *A. sylvaticus* and *A. flavicollis*, together  
274 with their current distributions, suggest that these species are unlikely to become threatened in Italy  
275 in the near future. However, knowledge gaps on species' distributions and local population trends  
276 persist, particularly for *A. agrarius*, and should be filled to provide a more informed assessment of  
277 their conservation status.

### 278 *Apodemus alpicola*

279 The Alpine wood mouse *Apodemus alpicola* was considered a subspecies of *A. flavicollis* until the  
280 1980s, when it was recognised as a new species (Vogel et al., 1991). It has a relatively small range  
281 being endemic to the Alps (Reutter et al., 2002). The species prefers open forests and prairies at high  
282 elevations (mostly over 800 m and up to 2,400 m a.s.l., Debernardi et al., 2003). *Apodemus alpicola*  
283 is considered an ecologically specialised taxon among wood mice (Reutter et al., 2003), significantly  
284 sensitive to deviations from its optimal environmental conditions., e.g., in terms of climate and land  
285 cover. Such specialisation, together with the small global range, led some authors to consider the  
286 species a conservation priority (Bertolino et al. 2014). Italy has a great responsibility in securing the  
287 conservation of Alpine organisms since about 25% of the Alps falls within the Italian territory.  
288 Moreover, alpine mammals are especially exposed to climate change since this disproportionately  
289 affects high-altitude organisms worldwide (Pacifici et al., 2018). *Apodemus alpicola* is currently  
290 listed as Data Deficient by the Italian red list, a category that reflects uncertainty in its conservation  
291 status and calls for caution in assessing its risk of extinction. Given its probable sensitivity to warming  
292 temperatures, the species will likely undergo range shifts and contractions, thus deserving careful  
293 future attention – possibly including legal protection – to secure its conservation. Moreover, Maiorano  
294 et al. (2006) indicate that the species is currently poorly covered by the national network of protected  
295 areas, evidencing an underrepresentation of this taxon in recent conservation planning, e.g., due to  
296 the exclusion of the species from any Annex of the Habitats Directive. Given the difficulties in field  
297 identification of *A. alpicola* when in sympatry with congeneric species, it is also necessary to clarify

299 the species' actual distribution across the Alps and establish effective methods for its correct  
300 identification (Ancillotto et al., 2017). In conclusion, the extreme similarity of the species of the genus  
301 *Apodemus*, along with their limited or no impact on human activities, reinforces the need to ensure  
302 legal protection for all species of the genus.

### 303 *Micromys minutus*

304 The harvest mouse *Micromys minutus* is the smallest European rodent with a wide extent of  
305 occurrence ranging from northern Spain to Japan throughout the Palearctic. Disjunct ranges occur in  
306 northern Russia, with insular populations in the United Kingdom, Japan and Taiwan, whereas Chinese  
307 populations are currently ascribed to a different species, the Indochinese harvest mouse *Micromys*  
308 *erythrotis* (Yasuda et al. 2005). Phylogeographic analyses detected only four divergent clades: the  
309 European, the Korean-Japanese, the Taiwanese and the Russian (Yasuda et al., 2005; Mori et al.,  
310 2022). However, a focus on Italian samples indicated that the populations from the Po Plain are  
311 somewhat differentiated, representing a possible fifth clade (Mori et al., 2022). The harvest mouse  
312 has no impact on human activities (Capizzi and Santini, 2007) and is declining throughout its range  
313 following habitat loss due to climate change and habitat modification (Darinot et al., 2021; Mori et  
314 al., 2022).

315 The species is widely distributed in the Po Valley in wetlands of good quality, even if there is no data  
316 on population trends. In central Italy, there are only a few records, probably representing populations  
317 left isolated by the progressive reduction of favourable habitats (Amori et al., 2008; Mori et al., 2022).  
318 Field data and distribution models show that *M. minutus* is strictly linked to grasslands and wetlands  
319 and threatened by summer droughts, forest re-expansion and intensive monocultures (Amori et al.,  
320 2008; Sawabe and Natuhara, 2016). These pressures are present in northern Italy, where populations  
321 are primarily concentrated. A monitoring plan is therefore urgently needed.

**Discussion**

Italian law 157/1992 protects mammal and bird species with populations living permanently or temporarily in a state of natural freedom in the national territory (art. 2.1), except moles, rats, mice and voles, which are explicitly excluded from protection (art. 2.2). Thus, according to art 2.1, until recently homeothermic species introduced and established in the country were automatically protected by law, while twenty native mammal species lacked protection. Only recently has the law been amended to specify that the management of introduced species is aimed at eradication or population control (national law 28 dicembre 2015, n. 221, article 7.5). The original text of the law without modifications reflects the dominant attitude in the 1980s, when the problems associated with the introduction of species were not yet evident, at least in Italy. On the other hand, some species have been excluded from protection due to a perception of their negative impact on crops and human well-being.

Some *Microtus* species are sometimes responsible for damage to crops and vegetables by root gnawing and plant consumption (Capizzi and Santini, 2007). For this reason, all voles have been excluded from the protection to allow control by farmers without the need for the activation of a control plan by local authorities required for the management of protected species. All Talpidae have been excluded from the protection for the same reason, although, being insectivores, these species do not damage crops and other vegetables. It was, therefore, a misunderstanding of their diet and ecological role (cf. Atkinson et al., 1994). However, molehills in gardens and public green areas are considered aesthetically unattractive, and they may act as sites for weed and vole invasions, causing soil degradation (Edwards et al., 1999). *Rattus* spp. and *Mus domesticus* are introduced species and global pests with negative impacts in urban and agricultural areas and human well-being (Capizzi et al., 2014). The unfortunate use in the legislation of the term ‘*topi propriamente detti*’ (i.e., ‘mice proper’) referred to these species has effectively extended the non-protection to all Muridae. In the end, only some *Microtus* species (i.e., of the *Microtus savii* group) are responsible for the damage to

349 agriculture among native small mammals since damage is not reported for Talpidae and native  
350 Muridae. Since damage is localised and rodenticides patented against voles have almost disappeared  
351 from the market, rodents' protection would have minimal consequences on agricultural activities. On  
352 the other hand, reducing the use of rodenticides minimises the risk of secondary poisoning of their  
353 predators.

354 Carnivora, such as *Canis lupus*, *Vulpes vulpes*, *Martes martes*, *Mustela putorius*, *Lutra lutra*, and  
355 *Felis silvestris*, were considered noxious by Italian law before the entry into force of law 968/1978,  
356 later replaced by law 157/1992. Nowadays, predators are protected by law, and some are even defined  
357 as particularly protected, with higher penalties for poaching. This change in legislation reflects how  
358 species are perceived by society: with predators considered apex species in ecosystems and not  
359 anymore as competitors of humans for prey (e.g., domestic and wild ungulates for wolves and fish  
360 for otters), though conflicts are still present (Morehouse and Boyce 2017; Davoli et al., 2022).

361 A society that does not consider Carnivora noxious species can further protect all native species.  
362 While protection should be extended to native species in general, we refer here only to those small  
363 mammals not covered by law 157/1992. Among these small mammals, seven species out of twenty  
364 (35%) are endemic or subendemic, for which Italy has full responsibility for their conservation.  
365 Furthermore, both the Italian lineage of *T. caeca* and *T. europaea* and the Calabrian lineage of *C.*  
366 *glareolus* could be considered as Evolutionary Significant Units and therefore worthy of protection.

367 There is a widespread perception that small mammals do not need protection since they would not be  
368 subject to the risk of decline due to their r-type reproductive strategy (Bertolino et al., 2014).

369 However, this depends more on the lack of data than on an actual assessment of population trends. In  
370 the IUCN European Mammal Assessment, demographic trend information was unavailable for 33%  
371 of the species considered, mostly small and medium sized (Temple and Terry, 2007). The Italian red  
372 list classified three non-protected rodent species as Near Threatened (Rondinini et al., 2022). Three  
373 other species are considered Data Deficient because the information available is so scarce that it has  
374 yet to be possible to assess their conservation status. The lack of a protection regime also results in



376 less funding and research on these species, perceived as harmful and not worthy of further study if  
377 not related to their management (Bertolino et al., 2015; Lang et al., 2022).

378 In Table 2, we report the legal situation of rodents and moles in some European countries. Muridae  
379 and Cricetidae among rodents and Talpidae are often not protected, a situation partly similar to Italy.  
380 In the Czech Republic, all mammals are protected by law, but other acts allow for controlling some  
381 rodents for veterinary or agricultural reasons. Similarly, in Poland, *Arvicola* and *Talpa* species are  
382 not protected in gardens, orchards and forest nurseries. In Great Britain, moles and some rodents are  
383 not protected. However, the water vole *A. amphibius*, a species with a Palearctic distribution, is  
384 becoming rare in the country and is considered as a flagship species for conservation. The species has  
385 declined mainly due to habitat loss, wetlands degradation, industrialisation of agriculture, and  
386 predation by American mink (Strachan and Moorhouse, 2006). For this reason, it is monitored  
387 throughout the country within a large-scale citizen science project (McGuire, 2021). Large breeding  
388 populations will then be included in a national network of key sites where habitats will be managed  
389 appropriately. By contrast, the endemic Italian water vole is not protected, the distribution and  
390 population trends are unknown and there is no national or regional monitoring project. A partly  
391 similar situation is present in Spain for the Southwestern water vole (*Arvicola sapidus*). This species  
392 is protected and listed as Vulnerable in Valencia and Catalonia regions, but it is not protected at all  
393 in Andalusia or Extremadura (Adrià Viñals Domingo pers. com.).

394 Between non-protected Italian small mammals, there are endemic or subendemic species, species  
395 clearly declining or for which it is impossible to define the status due to the extreme lack of  
396 distributional data. There is no reason not to consider them as protected as other mammals. It is,  
397 therefore, time to give these species the legislative protection they deserve, removing from art. 2.2 of  
398 the Law 157/1992 the words '*le norme della presente legge non si applicano alle talpe, ai ratti, ai*  
399 *topi propriamente detti, alle arvicole*' (i.e., 'the provisions of this law do not apply to moles, rats,  
400 mice proper, and voles'). In general, the difficulty for the non-experts (e.g. private citizens, home  
401 and business owners, farmers, etc.) of distinguishing the various small mammal species should not



403 be a justification for providing for a generalised possibility of their control, but, on the contrary, for  
404 providing for their protection.

405 A discussion could be open on protecting species of the *savii* group (*M. savii*, *M. brachycercus*, *M.*  
406 *nebrodensis*). These small mammal species produce damage to agriculture but are also endemic or  
407 sub-endemic and, therefore, of conservation relevance to Italy. The difficulty of distinguishing these  
408 species from other *Microtus* (i.e. *M. multiplex* and *M. subterraneus*), along with their lower damage  
409 compared to previous decades, makes it possible to evaluate the protection of these animals, which  
410 could in any case be subject to control according to the procedures laid down by law for all other  
411 mammal species.

## 412 Acknowledgements

413 We are grateful to Peter Adamik, Tim Adriaens, Sven Büchner, Rimvydas Juskaitis, Peter W.W.  
414 Lurz, Jean-François Maillard, George Mitsainas, Wojciech Solarz, Adrià Viñals Domingo for  
415 providing information on national laws. We thank John Gurnell and an anonymous referee for their  
416 valuable suggestions on a previous draft of the manuscript.

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**Table 1.** Native species considered as not protected by the Italian law 157/1992 and their status according to the Italian red lists (from Rondinini et al. 2013, 2022).

Order	Family	Species	Common name	Red list	Red list	Conservation concern
				2013	2022	
Soricomorpha	Talpidae	<i>Talpa caeca</i>	Blind mole	DD	DD	Subendemic
Soricomorpha	Talpidae	<i>Talpa europaea</i>	European mole	LC	LC	
Soricomorpha	Talpidae	<i>Talpa romana</i>	Roman mole	LC	LC	Endemic
Rodentia	Cricetidae	<i>Arvicola amphibius</i>	European water vole	DD	DD	
Rodentia	Cricetidae	<i>Arvicola italicus</i>	Italian water vole	NT	NT	Endemic
Rodentia	Cricetidae	<i>Chionomys nivalis</i>	European snow vole	NT	NT	
Rodentia	Cricetidae	<i>Microtus arvalis</i>	Common vole	LC	LC	
Rodentia	Cricetidae	<i>Microtus</i>	Calabrian pine vole	LC	LC	Endemic
		<i>brachycercus</i>				
Rodentia	Cricetidae	<i>Microtus levernediti</i>	Mediterranean field vole	LC	LC	
Rodentia	Cricetidae	<i>Microtus</i>	Liechtenstein's pine vole	LC	LC	
		<i>liechtensteini</i>				
Rodentia	Cricetidae	<i>Microtus multiplex</i>	Alpine pine vole	LC	LC	Subendemic
Rodentia	Cricetidae	<i>Microtus nebrodensis</i>	Sicilian pine vole	NE	LC	Endemic
Rodentia	Cricetidae	<i>Microtus savii</i>	Savi's pine vole	LC	LC	Subendemic
Rodentia	Cricetidae	<i>Microtus subterraneus</i>	Common pine vole	LC	LC	
Rodentia	Cricetidae	<i>Clethrionomys</i>	Bank vole	LC	LC	
		<i>glareolus</i>				
Rodentia	Muridae	<i>Apodemus agrarius</i>	Striped wood mouse	LC	LC	
Rodentia	Muridae	<i>Apodemus alpicola</i>	Alpine wood mouse	DD	DD	Restricted range
Rodentia	Muridae	<i>Apodemus flavicollis</i>	Yellow-necked wood mouse	LC	LC	

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681	Rodentia	Muridae	<i>Apodemus sylvaticus</i>	Wood mouse	LC	LC
682	Rodentia	Muridae	<i>Micromys minutus</i>	Harvest mouse	LC	NT

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Table 2. Legal situation of rodents and moles in some European countries

Country	National law	Small mammal protection
Germany	Bundesnaturschutzgesetz vom 29. Juli 2009 (BGBl. I S. 2542), das zuletzt durch Artikel 3 des Gesetzes vom 8. Dezember 2022 geändert worden ist. Federal Law for Nature Conservation	Moles protected; some rodents excluded
Greece	Presidential Decree (P.D.) 67 of 1981	Moles protected; some rodents excluded
Poland	Rozporządzenie Ministra Środowiska z dnia 16 grudnia 2016 r. w sprawie ochrony gatunkowej zwierząt. Ordinance of the Minister of the Environment of December 16, 2016 on the protection of animal species	Moles and some rodents partly protected; <i>C. glareolus</i> not protected. Specie of genus <i>Arvicola</i> and <i>Talpa</i> not protected in gardens, orchards and forest nurseries
Lithuania	Lietuvos Respublikos laukinės gyvūnijos įstatymas. The Republic of Lithuania Law on Wildlife	Mouse-like rodents (Muridae, Cricetidae), shrews, moles are not protected
France	Arrêté du 23 avril 2007 fixant la liste des mammifères terrestres protégés sur l'ensemble du territoire et les modalités de leur protection. Order of April 23, 2007 establishing the list of terrestrial mammals	Moles and many rodents not protected

709		protected throughout the territory and	
710		the terms of their protection	
711	Belgium -	Besluit van de Vlaamse Regering van	Moles and some rodents not protected
712	Flanders	15 mei 2009 met betrekking tot	
713		soortenbescherming en soortenbeheer.	
714		Decision of the Flemish Government	
715		on species protection and species	
716		management of 15 May 200	
717	Great Britain	Wildlife and Countryside Act 1981	Moles and some rodents not protected
718	Czech	Nature Protection Act 114/92.	All mammals are protected. Other acts
719	Republic		allow for controlling some species (e.g.
720			some rodents) for veterinary and
721			agricultural reasons.
722	Spain	Ley 42/2007, de 13 de diciembre, del	Only few rodents and insectivores
723		Patrimonio Natural y de la	(Eulipotyphla) are protected by national
724		Biodiversidad.	law; regional laws protect other species if
725		Law 42/2007, of December 13, on	locally rare or endangered
726		Natural Heritage and Biodiversity and	
727		additional regional legislation	