CHECK-LIST

OF

NORTH AMERICAN BIRDS

**

The Species of Birds of North America from the Arctic through Panama, Including the West Indies and Hawaiian Islands

**

PREPARED BY

THE COMMITTEE ON CLASSIFICATION AND NOMENCLATURE

OF THE

AMERICAN ORNITHOLOGISTS' UNION

**

SEVENTH EDITION

1998

Zoölogical nomenclature is a means, not an end, to Zoölogical Science

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PUBLISHED BY THE

AMERICAN ORNITHOLOGISTS' UNION

1998

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ISBN Number: 1-891276-00-X

Preferred citation:
American Ornithologists' Union. 1983. *Check-list of North American Birds.* 7th edition.
American Ornithologists' Union, Washington, D.C.

Printed by Allen Press, Inc.
Lawrence, Kansas, U.S.A.

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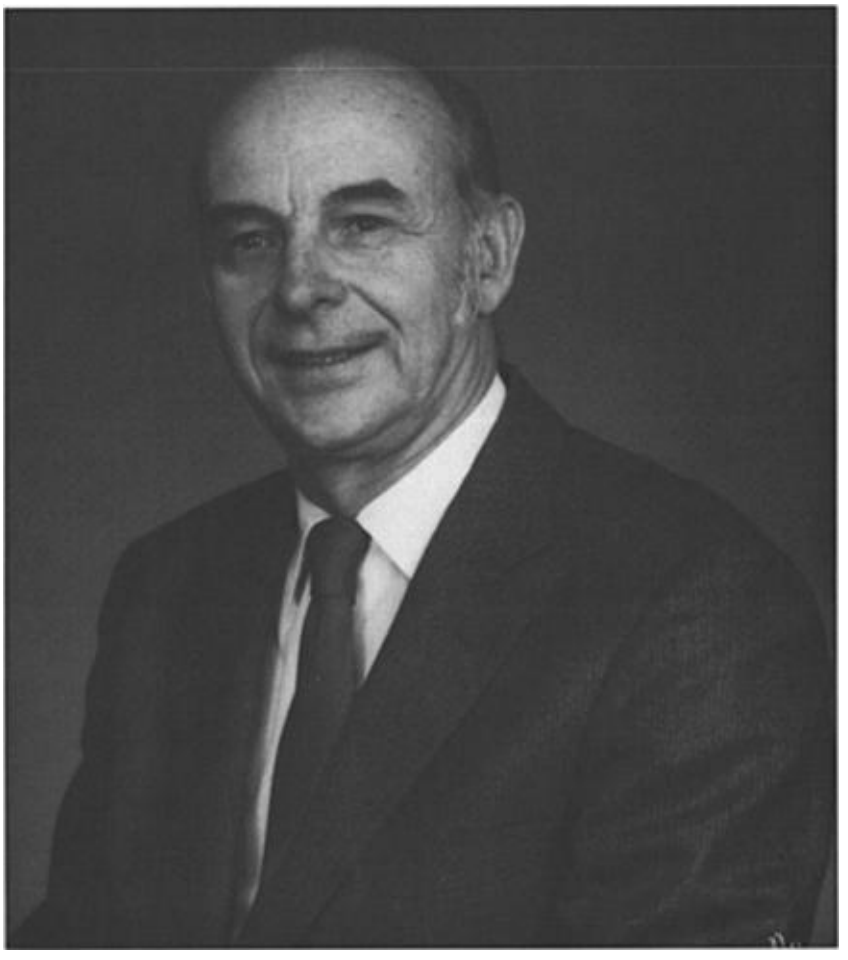
DEDICATION



BURT L. MONROE, JR.
1930–1994

To Dr. Burt L. Monroe, Jr., Past Chairman of the Committee on Classification and Nomenclature, whose encyclopedic knowledge of avian taxonomy, nomenclature, and distribution were indispensable in the preparation of the initial draft of the present volume. As Chair, he led the Committee with patience and efficient diplomacy, gaining our friendship and deep respect. A skilled communicator, he corresponded globally with both scientists and amateurs in a highly productive effort to standardize English names, a task in which he enthusiastically welcomed the views of everyone. During the waning months of his tenure, while enduring the constant pain and fatigue of terminal illness, Burt labored selflessly toward the completion of this Check-list, a significant portion of which represents one of his many lasting contributions to ornithology.

PREFACE TO THE SEVENTH EDITION

Background

Soon after publication of the sixth edition of the Check-list in 1983, members of the reconstituted Committee on Classification and Nomenclature began preparing this seventh edition. A primary goal of the Committee was to produce a volume that would emphasize information on the nature and extent of geographic variation in each included species and relate that variation to subspecific nomenclature. Each Committee member accepted responsibility for particular groups of birds. Draft species accounts were sent to Chairman Burt L. Monroe, Jr., for compilation and distribution to other committee members for review. Although subspecies-level accounts were written for almost half of the species in the Check-list area, it eventually became clear that a volume at that level would not be completed within acceptable time limits. In 1991, the Committee reluctantly decided to postpone that edition and instead to work toward a new edition at the species level.

Concurrently with work on the subspecies edition, the Committee pursued two other goals: (1) to maintain the currency of the sixth edition by evaluating newly published studies in taxonomy and nomenclature, accepting those recommendations or findings based on sound data analysis, and (2) to maintain the accuracy of distributional data for species known to occur in North America as defined in the Check-list or in particular political subdivisions (countries, states, or provinces) thereof. Beginning in 1984, the Committee met twice annually, in mid-winter (a few meetings skipped) and at the annual A.O.U. meeting. In preparation for a meeting, a member of the Committee would distribute a detailed analysis of published evidence for proposed changes in existing classification or for range extensions that added species to the A.O.U. area or to North America north of Mexico. In December 1995, the Committee began a series of ballots by mail, after distribution of such analyses. When a vote from either a meeting or a mail ballot resulted in a change in species limits or nomenclature, or the addition of a species to the known avifauna of the Check-list area or to the geographic area of the fifth and earlier editions of the Check-list (thus requiring the assignment of an A.O.U. or World number), the decision was included in a Supplement to the Check-list. Supplements were published in the July issue of *The Auk* in each odd-numbered year after the publication of the sixth edition until the publication of the seventh. A list of all Supplements to the Check-list since the first edition in 1886 appears at the end of this volume. Proposals not adopted by the Committee at any given meeting remained available for future consideration and reanalysis. Unresolved matters generally are reflected by alternative treatments mentioned with citations in "Notes" at the end of species accounts in this edition. On a few occasions, the Committee generated proposals on its own, concerning reevaluations of previously published analyses. These generally were reviews of decisions made for the sixth edition, and they usually resulted in the reversal of earlier decisions that had been made without adequate documentation.

In 1992, Monroe sent copies of a revised species-level manuscript to regional distributional authorities in states and provinces, Mexico, Central America, and the Caribbean. When most of those authorities had reviewed the manuscript for species in their areas, Monroe sent the updated manuscript to the Committee members for taxonomic review and refinement. Committee members, each concentrating on particular taxonomic groups of birds, sent their comments or revisions to Monroe, who maintained the master manuscript in a computer file. Monroe's health was failing in this period, and production of the revised edition went very slowly. When Burt Monroe died in May 1994 (Able 1996), Committee members became acutely aware of their dependence on him to carry the burden of the new edition.

In 1994, the A.O.U. Council authorized funds for the Committee to employ Andrew J. Kratter to assume the responsibility of maintaining the manuscript as members submitted new information and the Committee made taxonomic decisions. Kratter remained under contract, on a part time basis, from January 1995 until May 1996, after which the manuscript file and the responsibility of maintaining it were transferred to J. V. Remsen.

This edition includes taxonomic decisions made by the Committee up to March 1997. In general, taxonomic and systematic literature published after 1996 has not been reviewed. An important exception to that cutoff date is Ornithological Monographs no. 48, the contents of which were well known to the Committee because of editorial overlap. No new distri-

butional information was included after about 31 December 1996. Because of the considerable gap between return of the reviews of distributional information by regional authorities and the publication of this volume, it is likely that some important distributional records have been overlooked.

This edition of the Check-list contains 2,008 species, a significant increase from the 1,913 in the sixth edition. Of the total, 991 are nonpasserines; of the 1,017 passerines, 254 are suboscines and 763 are oscines. Of the latter, 315 are nine-primaries oscines. There are 83 additional species in part 1 of the Appendix, and 34 in part 2.

Taxonomic Philosophy

Since publication of the sixth edition of this Check-list, the Committee has studied a flood of new publications on the systematic status and taxonomic relationships of birds. Much of this literature has involved the examination of traditional morphologic data through the application of phylogenetic systematic or cladistic approaches. Increasingly, molecular systematic techniques, such as DNA-DNA hybridization, allozyme electrophoresis, restriction fragment length polymorphisms (RFLP), and direct sequencing of DNA bases, have been brought to bear on long-standing problems in classification and relationships, from subspecific to ordinal levels. The addition of molecular data to traditional information not only has provided a healthy multidisciplinary perspective heretofore lacking but also has given results that are based on independent data sets. In many instances the new techniques have provided conclusions entirely supportive of traditional taxonomies. In other examples, conflicting findings point to the need for further investigation. Throughout the species accounts of this check-list, we cite literature pertinent to our decisions on change in classification. Consequently, the Literature Cited is a reasonably comprehensive bibliography of recent literature on the systematics and taxonomy of North American birds and thus a major resource not found in previous editions of the Check-list.

As an official source on the taxonomy of North American birds, the Check-list of the American Ornithologists' Union is relied on by a variety of professional biologists, including museum curators, journal editors, state, provincial, and federal government wildlife managers and scientists, law enforcement personnel, and ornithologists in general. In addition, the Check-list is a basic resource for most of the technical and semi-popular references used by bird watchers. Because of wide acceptance of the Check-list as an authoritative standard, the Committee responsible for its preparation feels it necessary to avoid hasty decisions that risk quick reversal, thereby fostering instability. Following the time-honored tradition of previous Committees, our general stance has been conservative and cautious when judging recently published proposals for novel classifications, schemes of relationship, and species limits. We routinely have tabled recommendations for which supporting data were inconclusive and that lacked a consensus among the Committee. Such proposals can be reconsidered later in the light of additional relevant information.

Changes from the Sixth Edition

Higher-level classification.—The Committee established a policy for this edition whereby changes in classification of major groups require concordant evidence from two or more independent data sets. Among the more important changes in nonpasserines are the transfer of the family Cathartidae from the Falconiformes to the Ciconiiformes, the elevation of the New World Quail to the level of family (Odontophoridae), the removal of the family Pteroclididae from the Columbiformes to a position *incertae sedis* between the Charadriiformes and the Columbiformes, removing the family Upupidae from the Coraciiformes and raising it to the level of order (Upupiformes), and the separation of Old World and New World barbets (Capitonidae), with the latter placed as a subfamily (Capitoninae) in the family Ramphastidae.

In the suboscine passerines, the subfamily Thamnophilinae is elevated to the level of family (Thamnophilidae). In the Tyrannidae, we recognize a subfamily Platyrinchinae but not the subfamily Tityrinae. Several genera formerly scattered among the families Tyrannidae, Cotingidae, and Pipridae are removed from their former respective families and placed together *incertae sedis* before the Cotingidae.

In the oscine passerines, major changes include recognition of a corvine assemblage (the parvorder Corvida of Sibley and Ahlquist [1990]) of primarily Australasian families separate from other oscines. The Family Pycnonotidae is moved to follow the families Troglodytidae and Cinclidae, rather than precede them. The family Sturnidae is moved to a position following the Mimidae. The subfamilies of the sixth edition's Muscicapidae and Emberizidae are returned to their former rank as families; the kinglets, genus *Regulus,* are removed from the Muscicapidae and elevated to the rank of family (Regulidae). The genus *Peucedramus* is removed from the Parulidae and placed in a monotypic family (Peucedramidae), ahead of the Parulidae.

The many changes at lower taxonomic levels are summarized in Supplements published since the sixth edition.

A.O.U. numbers.—A system of numbering the species in the Check-list was established in the first edition and carried through, with necessary modifications, into the sixth. That system was applied only to those species that occurred in the geographic area covered by the first five editions, Canada and the continental United States plus Baja California, Mexico, and Greenland. Species in the sixth edition that occurred only in Hawaii, the Caribbean, Mexico, or Central America remained numberless. When an "extralimital" species was documented as occurring in the old Check-list area, the Committee assigned it a number. Any original significance of the sequence of numbers was lost as the classification changed over the years and as new species were interspersed. The original A.O.U. numbers retained usefulness in marking and organizing egg collections and other data sets or in administrative record keeping, but to an extent much limited by the geographic coverage. In 1990, Sibley and Monroe used a World List numbering system originally devised by P. William Smith, based on the old A.O.U. numbers but expanded to provide a number for each species of bird in the world. In the 38th Supplement to the Check-list (A.O.U. 1991), the Committee announced that it would adopt the World List numbering system in this seventh edition. Difficulties in applying that system as species were split or lumped over the next several years led the Committee to reevaluate what by default had become a commitment to maintain the system for a significant portion of the avian world. In 1995, the Committee decided to abandon any numbering system in the seventh edition, a decision noted in the 41st Supplement (A.O.U. 1997). The A.O.U. numbers for North American species in the sixth edition are still available and useful for those who see a need for a numbering system, as are those for the world list of birds in Sibley and Monroe (1990, 1993).

Statements of habitat.—Descriptions of habitat in the sixth edition were inconsistent and generalized, particularly for Neotropical species with which the Committee was less familiar. For the present edition we have adopted the standardized nomenclature for tropical American habitats used by Stotz et al. (1996) to compile ecological databases for all Neotropical bird species. Habitat terms that are initially capitalized here are from Stotz et al. (1996), and we refer readers to that publication for detailed botanical descriptions of those habitats.

Citations to literature.—As mentioned several times herein, the "Notes" sections at the ends of many species accounts have been expanded. We have attempted to provide references to document statements on alternative systematic treatments or nomenclature. We assume that most users of the Check-list are familiar with the historical literature on avian systematics, and will automatically refer to the classic compendia by Ridgway, Hellmayr, and Peters (as these series are generally known, although other authors also were involved). Those works, and the major scientific books on birds of the various Central American countries, may not always be cited in this Check-list, but they should always be consulted by researchers initiating taxonomic or distributional studies. Sibley and Ahlquist (1990) provided thorough historical reviews of the history of higher-level classification, which should be consulted by anyone interested in the classification of birds. That resource permits our "Notes" sections for higher-level categories to be brief.

French names.—A new feature of this edition is a list of French names for all included species. The French names used are derived from "Noms Français des Oiseaux du Monde," 1993, Commission internationale des noms français des oiseaux, Sainte-Foy, Canada, Éditions MultiMondes. Additional or modified French names necessitated by taxonomic changes adopted in the Check-list since 1993 were provided by the North American representatives of the International Committee on French names.

Appendix.—The three major appendices (A, B and C) of the sixth edition have been

combined into a single Appendix for this volume. The Appendix includes species of birds whose names have been mentioned in the literature in a way suggesting that they are a part of the avifauna of the area covered but that the Committee finds inadmissible to the main list for reasons indicated. The Appendix consists of two parts—species reported with insufficient evidence, and named forms of doubtful status or hybrid origin. Appendix D of the sixth edition, unestablished introductions, has been omitted.

Taxonomic Categories

In general, our classification scheme uses only the familiar formal categories of Order, Suborder, Superfamily, Family, Subfamily, Tribe, Genus, and Species. We do not use the Superspecies as a taxonomic category as advocated by Amadon (1966) and as used by Sibley and Monroe (1990). In Notes at the end of many accounts, however, we indicate that species have been considered or treated as allospecies of superspecies by some authorities. The Committee believes that many such treatments are more conjectural than factual. An informal category that we invoke is that of Group, also used extensively by Sibley and Monroe (1990). A Group typically is a geographic portion (one or more subspecies) of a polytypic species that was previously treated as a separate species but that has been merged with another Group under the biological species concept (BSC). The use of the Group concept is helpful in tracing the nomenclatural history of a species and in many instances provides names for use if and when the species is redivided. Many mergers in the early days of the biological species concept were not based on strong biological evidence. We have retained the merged species because in most instances strong evidence for re-division has not been presented. In a few instances, recent studies have suggested, without thorough analysis, that populations long considered to be conspecific should perhaps be split into two or more species. We have in some such instances used the term Group prospectively rather than retrospectively. In a sense, each mention of a Group is an invitation for research into the relationships of the populations involved.

Recognition of subspecies.—As in the sixth edition, for reasons of expediency, the Committee reluctantly excluded treatment of subspecies in the current volume. Their omission should not be interpreted as a devaluation of the importance of that taxonomic rank. To the contrary, the Committee strongly and unanimously continues to endorse the biological reality and practical utility of subspecies. Subspecies names denote geographic segments of species' populations that differ abruptly and discretely in morphology or coloration; these differences often correspond with differences in behavior and habitat. Such populations are thus flagged for the attention of evolutionists, ecologists, and conservationists. Some subspecies also are "species-in-the-making" and therefore constitute a significant element of newly evolving biodiversity. The Committee's endorsement of subspecies as entities worthy of scientific inquiry carries with it our realization that an uncertain number of currently recognized subspecies, especially those formally named early in this century, probably cannot be validated by rigorous modern techniques. The opposite is also true; after careful study an unknown number of present subspecies probably will be unmasked as cryptic biological species. This point further emphasizes the important role of this taxonomic rank in calling attention to examples of avian diversity deserving additional investigation.

Geographic Coverage

The geographic area covered by this edition is the same as that in the sixth edition—North and Middle America including the adjacent islands under the jurisdiction of the included nations; the Hawaiian Islands; Clipperton Island; Bermuda; the West Indies, including the Bahama Islands, the Greater Antilles, Leeward and Windward islands of the Lesser Antilles; and Swan, Providencia, and San Andrés islands in the Gulf of Mexico. In the Bering Sea the boundary is that delimiting the United States from Russia, which is also the International Date Line. To the east the boundary is the boundary between Canada and Greenland. The southern boundary in Middle America is the border between Panama and Colombia; in the Lesser Antilles, Grenada is the southernmost island included. Records of occurrence within 160 kilometers (100 miles) offshore from any coast in the Check-list area are included unless the locality of the records lies outside the specified limits in that region (e.g., an international boundary).

Criteria for Inclusion

All species for which there is a published record or report of occurrence within the Check-list area are included, either in the main list or in the Appendix. For inclusion in the main text, records of occurrence must be documented by a specimen or an unequivocally identifiable photograph. A recording of vocalizations diagnostic for a species could constitute equally valid documentation, but no species are included on that basis. Properly labeled specimens deposited in a public museum provide the best evidence of occurrence because they can be reexamined and verified in many ways (see beyond). Identifiable photographs, preferably published, that are deposited in a museum or photographic archive are the next best kind of evidence, and several species are included on the basis of such evidence. Once a species is admitted to the Check-list area, additional distributional data may be based on sight reports, but if the occurrence would constitute an addition to a national list, especially for the United States or Canada, documentation must be as firm as for addition to the entire list. For states and provinces in the United States and Canada, and for other political units where it might apply, this Committee has cooperated extensively with the Check-list Committee of the American Birding Association, which also is stringent in its assessment of the documentation of records. We note that a properly verified record of a species does not validate either earlier or later poorly documented or undocumented sight reports.

Species that have been introduced by humans, either deliberately or accidentally, are considered to be established if there are persistent records for at least ten years and satisfactory evidence that they are maintaining a reasonably stable or increasing population through successful reproduction. Ornithologists and birders are urged to pay close attention to species introduced in their areas and to document constancy of occurrence and changes in population size. Introduced species often are neglected, although they provide opportunity for fascinating research.

Format

Scientific names.—The Check-list follows the third edition of the International Code of Zoological Nomenclature, published in 1985, and decisions of the International Commission on Zoological Nomenclature as published in the Bulletin of Zoological Nomenclature.

Citation.—Each generic and specific scientific name is followed by the name of the author (original describer) of the name. If the author's name is in parentheses, the species was originally described in a genus different from that to which it is currently assigned. Each generic or specific name is further followed by the date (year, occasionally month and year) in which it was first published and the name of the publication in which the name appeared. This is followed by a statement of the type species (of a genus) or type locality (of a species). Where more than one year is given, the one in parentheses is the ostensible date of publication, usually as on the cover or title page, and the one without parentheses is the actual date of publication as determined by other evidence. Some publication dates have been changed from the sixth edition because of the studies of Browning and Monroe (1991) or others. In a few instances, the change of a date has necessitated the change (from previous editions) of a citation or even of the name itself because of the Law of Priority as set forth in the Code. We are especially grateful to Alan P. Peterson for assistance in obtaining correct dates of publication.

English names.—We have followed the guidelines on English names set forth in the Preface to the sixth edition, with some exceptions. For species of primarily Eurasian distribution that are on the American list as a result of vagrancy, we have accepted the English name used by the B.O.U. (1992). An extensive suite of changes was published in the 40th Supplement (A.O.U. 1995). When a species was divided into two or more distinct species, we have used former English names, if available, for the resultant taxa. In general, we have followed the policy that no English name should be used for both a combined species and one of the components (Groups). However, we often have retained a well-known English name for a widespread North American form when a taxon that is either extralimital or restricted in distribution is separated from it. An example is the retention of the name Red-winged Blackbird for *Agelaius phoeniceus* when the Cuban population was separated as *A. assimilis* and named the Red-shouldered Blackbird.

Species Concepts

The Committee strongly and unanimously continues to endorse the biological species concept (BSC), in which species are considered to be genetically cohesive groups of populations that are reproductively isolated from other such groups. According to the BSC, geographic isolation leads to genetic change and potentially to the reproductive isolation of sister taxa. If and when these closely related forms later coexist, reproductive isolating mechanisms such as distinctive displays and vocalizations serve to maintain the essential genetic integrity of the newly formed biological species. In recent decades the BSC has been criticized because of several purported weaknesses (Cracraft 1983, McKitrick and Zink 1988). These problems fall into three categories (Zink 1996): interpretation of hybridization, the supposed recognition of nonhistorical groups, and the treatment of allopatric populations. Although space does not permit a thorough analysis of the relevant issues here, the Committee believes that the supposed weaknesses of the BSC have been overstated, as the following brief comments explain.

Regarding the interpretation of hybridization, we emphasize that a significant number of undisputed biological species of birds long retain the capacity for at least limited interbreeding with other species, even non-sister taxa (Prager and Wilson 1975, Grant and Grant 1992). Therefore, the occasional occurrence of hybridization, even between taxa that the Committee has long recognized as species, by no means diminishes the biological reality of their *essential* reproductive isolation. In practice, interbreeding has not been the ironclad determinate of conspecificity that some would believe. Thus, essential (lack of free interbreeding) rather than complete reproductive isolation has been and continues to be the fundamental operating criterion for species status by workers adhering to the BSC. In particular, hybridization of two forms across narrow and stable contact zones–once viewed as a sufficient criterion for treatment as one species–is now viewed as evidence for *lack* of free interbreeding. As a consequence, many pairs of sister taxa that were merged in the sixth edition have been resplit in this edition of the Check-list.

The BSC also has been criticized because it supposedly cannot correctly reflect the historical relationships of taxa. Admittedly, occasional examples of massive hybridization have led this Committee and previous ones (prior to the availability of molecular phylogenetic information) improperly to combine into single species probable non-sister taxa. Nonetheless, the BSC can readily accommodate new data on historical relationships of taxa as better estimates become available. Such estimates are now commonplace for many taxa, reflecting the widespread application of molecular systematic techniques appropriate to phylogenetic recovery.

Finally, the subjective treatment of allopatric populations,which by definition cannot pass the test of sympatry by proving their reproductive isolation, has been claimed to be a weakness of the BSC. In fact, modern technology has removed much of the taxonomic treatment of such populations from the realm of subjectivity and opinion. Quantified study of vocalizations and detailed investigation of genetic distances of allopatric populations, for example, provide data for quantitative comparison with levels of difference seen in the same features among sympatric biological species. When allopatric taxa demonstrate either similarities or differences in features related to reproductive isolation, such as song and genetic distance, taxonomic rank can be assigned by appropriate, objective criteria rather than through guesses as to their capacity for interbreeding with allopatric relatives.

Cracraft (1983) proposed a "phylogenetic species concept" (PSC) for ornithology, which narrowly defines species as "the smallest diagnosable cluster of individual organisms within which there is a parental pattern of ancestry and descent." Using this definition, many groups of populations recognized as subspecies under the BSC would become species under the PSC. For strongly characterized subspecies or "near species" under the BSC, diagnosis as phylogenetic species presents no serious problem. But to elevate to species status the plethora of subspecies of birds exhibiting distinct but trivial, or geographically chaotic, variation would represent extreme retrogression to the typological species concepts of more than a century ago. The PSC would be reduced to absurdity when species status is granted to tiny clusters of individuals now diagnosable through sophisticated molecular approaches. Furthermore, use of diagnostic characters does not necessarily guarantee accurate phylogenetic construction. Moreover, we regard as indefensible the identification of species by what are

essentially phenetic criteria. A final major problem with the PSC is its lack of a distinctly biological foundation. This is revealed clearly by the fact that the PSC can apply equally well to either animate or inanimate objects, both categories of which include members that are diagnosable at some level and also have a history.

The Committee recognizes that essential genetic isolation is the indispensable feature of biological species and that this independence from all other living genetic systems is a consequence of reproductive isolation. The latter is, therefore, the main engine that propels the evolution of biodiversity, including that of birds. That one can observe directly and measure the reproductive isolating mechanisms that protect the essential genetic integrity of biological species of birds in natural environments is further reason to apply the BSC to members of this Class. Application of the BSC has the undeniable biological appeal of allowing the behavior of the populations themselves to determine taxonomic rank.

Collection of Specimens

The Committee strongly and unanimously supports the judicious and ethical collection of birds for scientific purposes. Specimens are indispensable for the investigation of a multitude of unsolved problems of relationship, evolutionary history, structure, and geographic occurrence. Existing collections are an irreplaceable foundation for present taxonomy and distribution. Nonetheless, most specimens in such collections were obtained decades ago when standards for systematic analysis were different from those at present. Because of discoloration resulting from age, inadequate reproductive data, and poor initial preparation–as well as ongoing evolutionary change–present collections, even when considered together, nearly always must be supplemented by new material for comprehensive systematic studies (Winker 1996). Furthermore, most current collections either lack or have an inadequate representation of preserved tissue necessary for the application of molecular systematic approaches.

We emphasize that the recognition, description, and conservation of all biodiversity, including that of birds, depends ultimately on proper taxonomic analyses. The latter, in turn, cannot be conducted without adequate scientific collections of specimens (Remsen 1995).

The Committee unanimously recognizes the contributions of an increasing number of serious amateurs and other workers with excellent skills in field identification who continue to add significant distributional information for the large number of easily identifiable kinds of birds. Despite such contributions, however, scientific collecting continues to play a crucial role in the proper documentation of avian distribution. Many species of birds in some plumages, and some species in all plumages, cannot be identified safely in the field, the increased sophistication of field skills notwithstanding. The Committee deplores the invasion of the primary distributional literature by an increasing volume of poorly documented reports of the latter two categories of species, resulting in a significant general decline in quality of the scientific database for avian distribution. For many taxa of birds, judicious scientific collecting is necessary to provide full and proper documentation for dependable distributional records.

Acknowledgments

It is difficult to think of an ornithologist or birder who is interested in avian systematics or distribution who has not helped us in some way, directly or indirectly, in the preparation of this volume.

Jon L. Dunn provided detailed reviews of the distribution sections for many families. M. Ralph Browning, Steven W. Cardiff, Roger B. Clapp, Donna L. Dittmann, and Curtis A. Marantz reviewed early drafts of many family accounts. The Committee wishes to acknowledge its great debt to the following additional individuals for providing diverse kinds of important assistance: John Arvin, G. C. Banks, Jon C. Barlow, John M. Bates, Louis Bevier, Paul A. Buckley, R. Wayne Campbell, Carla Cicero, José A. Colon, Paul A. DeBenedictis, Richard A. Erickson, Ted Eubanks, Robert C. Fleischer, Kimball Garrett, John A. Gerwin, Daniel D. Gibson, Helen F. James, Greg W. Lasley, Paul Lehman, Joe T. Marshall, Jr., Joseph Morlan, Storrs L. Olson, Michael A. Patten, Alan P. Peterson, H. Douglas Pratt, Robert L. Pyle, Mark B. Robbins, Kenneth V. Rosenberg, Thomas S. Schulenberg, P. William Smith, Ted Snetsinger, Douglas F. Stotz, John Tomer, Philip Unitt, and Robert M. Zink.

Because of the untimely death of Burt Monroe, we were unable to construct a complete list of those who contributed or corrected distributional information in early reviews of the manuscript. We apologize to any who were omitted from the following list: Gordon Berkey (North Dakota), Laurence C. Binford (California, Illinois, Michigan, Oaxaca), Eriik A. T. Blom (Delaware, Maryland), Steven W. Cardiff (Louisiana), Charles M. Carlson (Montana), Paul A. DeBenedictis (New York), James J. Dinsmore (Iowa), Donna L. Dittmann (Louisiana), David O. Easterla (Missouri), Charles Ely (Kansas), Richard A. Erickson (California), Kimball L. Garrett (California), Orlando Garrido (Cuba), Sidney A. Gauthreaux (South Carolina), Daniel D. Gibson (Alaska), Bernie Gollop (Saskatchewan), Joseph A. Grzybowski (Oklahoma), George A. Hall (West Virginia), C. Stuart Houston (Prairie provinces), S. N. G. Howell (Guatemala, Mexico), John P. Hubbard (New Mexico), Thomas A. Imhof (Alabama), Ross D. James (Ontario), Robert B. Janssen (Minnesota), Charles E. Keller (Indiana), Allan A. Keith (Lesser Antilles), Rudolf F. Koes (Manitoba), Ed Kurac (Texas), Greg W. Lasley (Texas), Catherine Levy (Jamaica), Curtis A. Marantz (Louisiana), Bruce McGillivray (Alberta), J. Michael Meyers (Puerto Rico), Russell E. Mumford (Indiana), Robert Nero (Manitoba), Blair Nikula (New England), Robert L. Norton (West Indies), Michael A. Patten (California), Dennis Paulson (British Columbia, Idaho, Oregon, Washington), Robert B. Payne (Michigan), Raul Perez-Rivera (Puerto Rico), Bruce Peterjohn (Ohio), H. Douglas Pratt (Hawaii), Jack Redall (Colorado), Robert R. Reid (Alabama), Robert S. Ridgely (Panama), Chandler S. Robbins (Delaware, D.C., Maryland), W. B. Robertson (Florida), Gary H. Rosenberg (Arizona, Costa Rica), Ella Sorenson (Utah), Max C. Thompson (Kansas), Walter Thurber (El Salvador), Nathaniel R. Whitney (South Dakota), Morris D. Williams (Tennessee), Sartor O. Williams, III (New Mexico), Glen E. Woolfenden (Florida), and Phillip L. Wright (Montana).

Committee: Richard C. Banks, *Chairman, 1995–1998*
John W. Fitzpatrick
Thomas R. Howell
Ned K. Johnson
† Burt L. Monroe, Jr., *Chairman, 1983–1994*
Henri Ouellet
J. V. Remsen, Jr.
Robert W. Storer

† Deceased

Within the *colchicus* group, the Asiatic complex may be a species, *P. torquatus* Gmelin, 1789 [Ring-necked Pheasant], distinct from the more western *P. colchicus* [Common or English Pheasant]; most North American populations are from *torquatus* stock, although birds from European *colchicus* are mixed with *torquatus* in many areas.

Genus ***PAVO*** Linnaeus

Pavo Linnaeus, 1758, Syst. Nat. (ed. 10) 1: 156. Type, by tautonymy, *Pavo cristatus* Linnaeus (*Pavo,* prebinomial specific name, in synonymy).

Pavo cristatus Linnaeus. Common Peafowl.

Pavo cristatus Linnaeus, 1758, Syst. Nat. (ed. 10) 1: 156. (in India orientali, Zeylona = India.)

Habitat.—Open forest, forest edge, second growth, scrub, open areas with scattered trees, and cultivated lands.

Distribution.—*Resident* throughout India and on Sri Lanka.

Introduced in the Hawaiian Islands (initially in 1860, now established on Oahu, Maui, and Hawaii) and the Bahamas (Exuma); local, semi-domesticated populations also have persisted for years in various parts of the North American continent.

Subfamily TETRAONINAE: Grouse

Notes.—Sometimes regarded as a family, the Tetraonidae (e.g., A.O.U. 1957). The taxonomic arrangement is based on Ellsworth et al. (1995, 1996).

Genus ***BONASA*** Stephens

Bonasa Stephens, 1819, in Shaw, Gen. Zool. 11(2): 298. Type, by subsequent designation (A.O.U. Comm., 1886), *Tetrao umbellus* Linnaeus.

Bonasa umbellus (Linnaeus). Ruffed Grouse.

Tetrao umbellus Linnaeus, 1766, Syst. Nat. (ed. 12) 1: 275. Based on "The Ruffed Heath-cock or Grous" Edwards, Glean. Nat. Hist. 1: 79, pl. 248. (in Pensylvania = eastern Pennsylvania.)

Habitat.—Forest, mainly mixed deciduous-coniferous and deciduous, in both wet and relatively dry situations, from boreal forest and northern hardwood-ecotone to eastern deciduous forest and oak-savanna woodland.

Distribution.—*Resident* from central Alaska, northern Yukon, southwestern Mackenzie, northern Saskatchewan, northern Manitoba, northern Ontario, southern Quebec, southern Labrador, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, and Nova Scotia south to northwestern California, northeastern Oregon, central and eastern Idaho, central Utah, northwestern Colorado , western and northern Wyoming, southern Alberta, southern Saskatchewan, southern Manitoba (absent from prairie regions of three preceding provinces), northern North Dakota, central and southeastern Minnesota, Iowa, northern Illinois (at least formerly), central Indiana, Ohio, in the Appalachians to northern Georgia, western South Carolina, and western North Carolina, and to northeastern Virginia; also locally south to western South Dakota (Black Hills), northeastern Kansas, northern Arkansas, central Missouri, western Tennessee, and northeastern Alabama.

Introduced and established on Anticosti Island and in Newfoundland.

Genus ***CENTROCERCUS*** Swainson

Centrocercus [subgenus] Swainson, 1832, in Swainson and Richardson, Fauna Bor.-Amer. 2 (1831): 358, 496. Type, by original designation, *Tetrao urophasianus* Bonaparte.

Centrocercus urophasianus (Bonaparte). Sage Grouse.

Tetrao urophasianus Bonaparte, 1827, Zool. J. 3: 213. (Northwestern countries beyond the Mississippi, especially on the Missouri = North Dakota.)

Habitat.—Foothills, plains, rocky plateaus, and mountain slopes where sagebrush is present.

Distribution.—*Resident* locally (formerly widespread) from central Washington, Montana, southeastern Alberta, southwestern Saskatchewan, southwestern North Dakota, western South Dakota, and extreme northwestern Nebraska south to eastern California, south-central Nevada, southern Utah, and western Colorado, formerly north to southern British Columbia, south to northern New Mexico and southeast to extreme western Oklahoma.

Notes.—The isolated populations of the Gunnison Basin of Colorado represent a distinct unnamed species (Hupp and Braun 1991, Young et al. 1994).

Genus ***FALCIPENNIS*** Elliot

Falcipennis Elliot, 1864, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Philadelphia 16: 23. Type, by monotypy, *Falcipennis hartlaubi* Elliot = *Tetrao falcipennis* Hartlaub.

Canachites Stejneger, 1885, Proc. U. S. Natl. Mus. 8: 410. Type, by original designation, *Tetrao canadensis* Linnaeus.

Notes.—*Canachites* has been considered generically distinct (Peters 1934, A.O.U. 1957, Ellsworth et al. 1995) or merged with *Dendragapus* (Short 1967, A.O.U. 1983); the latter treatment would make *Dendragapus* paraphyletic (Ellsworth et al. 1996). Yamashina (1939) recommended its merger with *Falcipennis,* as have Dickerman and Gustafson (1996).

Falcipennis canadensis (Linnaeus). Spruce Grouse.

Tetrao canadensis Linnaeus, 1758, Syst. Nat. (ed. 10) 1: 159. Based on "The Black and Spotted Heath-cock" Edwards, Nat. Hist. Birds 3: 118, pl. 118. (in Canada = Churchill, Manitoba; restricted by Todd, 1963, Birds Labrador Peninsula, p. 252.)

Habitat.—Coniferous forest, primarily spruce and pine, especially with dense understory of grasses and shrubs or regenerating burns.

Distribution.—*Resident* [*canadensis* group] from northern Alaska, northern Yukon, northern Mackenzie, southwestern Keewatin, northern Manitoba, northern Ontario, northern Quebec, and Labrador south to coastal and south-central Alaska, central British Columbia, central Alberta, central Saskatchewan, southern Manitoba, northern Minnesota, northern Wisconsin, central Michigan, southern Ontario, northern New York, northern Vermont, northern New Hampshire, and eastern Maine; and [*franklinii* group] from southeastern Alaska (west to base of the Alaska Peninsula), central British Columbia and west-central Alberta south to northern Oregon, central and southeastern Idaho, and western Montana.

Introduced and established [*canadensis* group] in Newfoundland.

Notes.—Groups: *F. canadensis* [Spruce Grouse] and *F. franklinii* (Douglas, 1829) [Franklin's Grouse]. Formerly placed in *Dendragapus* or *Canachites.*

Genus ***LAGOPUS*** Brisson

Lagopus Brisson, 1760, Ornithologie 1: 26, 181. Type, by tautonymy, *Lagopus* Brisson = *Tetrao lagopus* Linnaeus.

Lagopus lagopus (Linnaeus). Willow Ptarmigan.

Tetrao Lagopus Linnaeus, 1758, Syst. Nat. (ed. 10) 1: 159. (in Europæ alpinis = Swedish Lapland.)

Habitat.—Open tundra, especially in areas heavily vegetated with grasses, mosses, herbs, and shrubs, less frequently in openings in boreal coniferous forest.

Distribution.—*Breeds* [*lagopus* group] in North America across the Arctic from northern Alaska east through Banks, southern Melville, and Bathurst islands to western Baffin Island, and south to the central and eastern Aleutian Islands, southern Alaska, northwestern and

east-central British Columbia, extreme west-central Alberta, central Mackenzie, southern Keewatin, northeastern Manitoba, extreme northern Ontario, the Twin Islands (in James Bay), central Quebec, Labrador, and Newfoundland; and in Eurasia from Greenland and Scandinavia east across Russia and Siberia, and south (except the British Isles) to Mongolia, Ussuriland, and Sakhalin.

Resident [*scoticus* group] in the British Isles, Orkney Islands, and Hebrides.

Winters [*lagopus* group] mostly in the breeding range, in North America wandering irregularly (or casually) south to Montana (formerly), North Dakota, Minnesota, Wisconsin, central Ontario, and Maine; and in Eurasia south to northern Europe.

Introduced [*lagopus* group] and established (in 1968, from the Newfoundland population) on Scatarie Island in Nova Scotia.

Accidental [*lagopus* group] in Nova Scotia before introduction.

Notes.—In the Old World known as Willow Grouse. Groups: *L. lagopus* [Willow Ptarmigan] and *L. scoticus* (Latham, 1789) [Red Grouse].

Lagopus mutus (Montin). Rock Ptarmigan.

Tetrao mutus Montin, 1776, Phys. Sälskap. Handl. 1: 155. (Alpibus lapponicus = Sweden.)

Habitat.—Open tundra, barren and rocky slopes in Arctic and alpine areas; in winter, some movement to thickets and forest edge.

Distribution.—*Breeds* in North America from northern Alaska east through the Canadian Arctic islands to Ellesmere and Baffin islands, and south to the Aleutians, southern Alaska (including Kodiak Island), western and northern British Columbia, central Mackenzie, central Keewatin, Southampton Island, northern Quebec, northern Labrador, and Newfoundland; and in the Palearctic from Greenland, Iceland, Scotland, and Scandinavia east across northern Russia and northern Siberia to Kamchatka, and at high elevations in the Pyrenees and Alps of southern Europe, the mountain ranges of central Asia, and in the Kuril Islands and Japan (Honshu).

Winters regularly in North America from the breeding range south to southern Mackenzie, northern Saskatchewan, northern Manitoba, northwestern Ontario, and central Quebec, casually to coastal British Columbia (the Queen Charlotte Islands); and in the Palearctic primarily resident in the breeding range.

Accidental in northern Minnesota.

Notes.—Known in Old World literature as the Ptarmigan.

Lagopus leucurus (Richardson). White-tailed Ptarmigan.

Tetrao (Lagopus) leucurus "Swains." Richardson, 1831, in Wilson and Bonaparte, Amer. Ornithol. (Jameson ed.) 4: 330. (Rocky Mountains, lat. 54° N.)

Habitat.—Alpine tundra, especially in rocky areas with sparse vegetation; in winter, moves slightly lower, to areas where vegetation protrudes above snow.

Distribution.—*Resident* from south-central Alaska (Alaska Range), northern Yukon, and southwestern Mackenzie south to southern Alaska (west to the Kenai Peninsula and Lake Clark), southern British Columbia (including Vancouver Island), and the Cascade Mountains of Washington, and along the Rocky Mountains (locally, mostly on alpine summits) from southeastern British Columbia and southwestern Alberta south through central southern Wyoming and Colorado to northern New Mexico.

Introduced and established in northeastern Utah (Uinta Mountains) and California (central Sierra Nevada); introduced also in northeastern Oregon (Wallowa Mountains) with unknown success.

Genus ***DENDRAGAPUS*** Elliot

Dendragapus Elliot, 1864, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Philadelphia 16: 23. Type, by subsequent designation (Baird, Brewer, and Ridgway, 1874), *Tetrao obscurus* Say.

Dendragapus obscurus (Say). Blue Grouse.

Tetrao obscurus Say, 1823, in Long, Exped. Rocky Mount. 2: 14. (near Defile Creek = about 20 miles north of Colorado Springs, Colorado.)

Habitat.—Coniferous and coniferous-deciduous forest, often adjacent to open country; in winter, more restricted to dense coniferous forest [*obscurus* group]; open coniferous forest [*fuliginosus* group].

Distribution.—*Resident* [*obscurus* group] from southeastern Alaska (except coastal areas), southern Yukon, and extreme southwestern Mackenzie south through the mountains of interior British Columbia (except coastal, southwestern, and south-central areas), southwestern Alberta, eastern Washington, and the Rocky Mountains to eastern Nevada, northern and eastern Arizona (south to White Mountains), southwestern and north-central New Mexico, western and central Colorado and (formerly) western South Dakota; and [*fuliginosus* group] from coastal southeastern Alaska (north to Yakutat) and coastal British Columbia (including the Queen Charlotte and Vancouver islands) south in coastal ranges and the Cascades to northwestern California, the Sierra Nevada, and (at least formerly) to southern California (Ventura County) and extreme western Nevada.

Notes.—Groups: *D. obscurus* [Dusky Grouse] and *D. fuliginosus* (Ridgway, 1874) [Sooty Grouse].

Genus ***TYMPANUCHUS*** Gloger

Tympanuchus Gloger, 1841, Gemein. Handb. und Hilfsb. Naturgesch., p. 396. Type, by monotypy, *Tetrao cupido* Linnaeus.

Pedioecetes Baird, 1858, in Baird, Cassin, and Lawrence, Rep. Explor. Surv. R. R. Pac. 9: xxi, xliv. Type, by monotypy, *Tetrao phasianellus* Linnaeus.

Notes.—For comments on relationships within this genus, see Ellsworth et al. (1994).

Tympanuchus phasianellus (Linnaeus). Sharp-tailed Grouse.

Tetrao Phasianellus Linnaeus, 1758, Syst. Nat. (ed. 10) 1: 160. Based on "The Long-tailed Grous from Hudson's-Bay" Edwards, Nat. Hist. Birds 3: 117, pl. 117. (in Canada = Hudson Bay.)

Habitat.—Grasslands, especially with scattered woodlands, arid sagebrush, brushy hills, oak savanna, edges of riparian woodland, muskeg, and bogs; in winter, more restricted to areas with shrub or tree cover.

Distribution.—*Resident,* at least locally, from central Alaska, central Yukon, northwestern Mackenzie, northern Saskatchewan, northern Manitoba, northern Ontario, and west-central Quebec south to eastern Washington, southern Idaho, northern Utah, southwestern, central and northeastern Colorado, western and north-central Kansas, central Nebraska, eastern South Dakota, eastern North Dakota, northern Minnesota, central Wisconsin, central Michigan, and southern Ontario; formerly occurred south to southern Oregon, northeastern California, northeastern Nevada, northeastern New Mexico, southern Iowa and northern Illinois, probably also northern Texas.

Notes.—See comments under *T. cupido.*

Tympanuchus cupido (Linnaeus). Greater Prairie-Chicken.

Tetrao Cupido Linnaeus, 1758, Syst. Nat. (ed. 10) 1: 160. Based on "Le Cocq de bois d'Amérique" Catesby, Nat. Hist. Carolina 2 (app.): 1, pl. 1. (in Virginia = Pennsylvania.)

Habitat.—Tall-grass prairie, occasionally feeding in adjacent cultivated lands; formerly in eastern (fire-produced) grassland and blueberry barrens.

Distribution.—*Resident* locally and in much reduced numbers from eastern North Dakota, northwestern and central Minnesota, and northern Wisconsin south to southeastern Wyoming, northeastern Colorado, Kansas (except southwestern), northeastern Oklahoma, central Missouri, and southern Illinois; also in southeastern Texas. Formerly occurred (now extirpated

or nearly so) from east-central Alberta, central Saskatchewan, southern Manitoba, and southern Ontario south, east of the Rocky Mountains, to eastern Texas, southwestern Louisiana, east-central Arkansas, central Indiana, western Kentucky, and western Ohio; and in the east from Massachusetts south to Maryland, after 1835 confined to the island of Martha's Vineyard, Massachusetts (where last reported in 1932).

Notes.—The extinct eastern population was called Heath Hen. This species and *T. pallidicinctus* constitute a superspecies and are considered to be conspecific by some authors (e.g., Johnsgard 1983); with this concept, Prairie Chicken or Pinnated Grouse may be used. *Tympanuchus cupido* and *T. phasianellus* hybridize sporadically, but occasionally they interbreed extensively on a local level (Johnsgard and Wood 1968).

Tympanuchus pallidicinctus (Ridgway). Lesser Prairie-Chicken.

Cupidonia cupido var. *pallidicinctus* Ridgeway [sic], 1873, For. Stream 1: 289. (Prairie of Texas [near lat. 32° N.].)

Habitat.—Dry short-grass prairie, often interspersed with shrubs and short trees, regularly feeding in adjacent cultivated lands.

Distribution.—Resident locally and in reduced numbers from southeastern Colorado, south-central Kansas, and western Oklahoma to extreme southeastern New Mexico and northern Texas (Panhandle), formerly north to southwestern Nebraska.

Notes.—See comments under *T. cupido.*

Subfamily MELEAGRIDINAE: Turkeys

Notes.—Sometimes regarded as a family, the Meleagrididae (e.g., A.O.U. 1957).

Genus ***MELEAGRIS*** Linnaeus

Meleagris Linnaeus, 1758, Syst. Nat. (ed. 10) 1: 156. Type, by tautonymy, *Meleagris gallopavo* Linnaeus (*Meleagris,* prebinomial specific name, in synonymy).

Agriocharis Chapman, 1896, Bull. Amer. Mus. Nat. Hist. 6: 287, 288. Type, by monotypy, *Meleagris ocellata* "Temminck" [= Cuvier].

Notes.—Osteological studies by Steadman (1980) have shown that the genus *Agriocharis* should not be separated from *Meleagris.*

Meleagris gallopavo Linnaeus. Wild Turkey.

Meleagris Gallopavo Linnaeus, 1758, Syst. Nat. (ed. 10) 1: 156. Based mainly on the "Wild Turkey" Catesby, Nat. Hist. Carolina 1: 44, pl. 44. (in America septentrionali = Mirador, Veracruz.)

Habitat.—Forest and open woodland, deciduous (particularly oak) or mixed deciduous-coniferous, especially with adjacent clearings or pastures (Subtropical and Temperate zones).

Distribution.—Resident locally and generally in reduced numbers (formerly widespread) from northern Arizona, New Mexico, Kansas, eastern Nebraska, southeastern South Dakota, northern Iowa, southern and eastern Wisconsin, southern Ontario (formerly), extreme southern Quebec, northern New York, southern Vermont, southern New Hampshire, and southwestern Maine south to Guerrero (at least formerly), Veracruz, southern Texas, the Gulf coast, and Florida.

Reintroduced widely through its former breeding range north of Mexico, and established locally north to southern British Columbia, Washington, Idaho, southern Alberta, southern Saskatchewan, southern Manitoba, southeastern Minnesota, northern Michigan, and southern Ontario, and in the Hawaiian Islands (initially in 1788, now on Niihau, Lanai, Maui, and Hawaii) and New Zealand.

Meleagris ocellata Cuvier. Ocellated Turkey.

Meleagris ocellata Cuvier, 1820, Mém. Mus. Hist. Nat. 6: 1, 4, pl. 1. (Gulf of Honduras = Belize.)

Habitat.—Tropical Lowland Evergreen Forest Edge, Tropical Deciduous Forest (Tropical Zone).

Distribution.—*Resident* in southeastern Mexico (Tabasco and the Yucatan Peninsula), northern Guatemala (Petén), and northern Belize.

Notes.—Formerly placed in the genus *Agriocharis.*

Subfamily NUMIDINAE: Guineafowl

Genus ***NUMIDA*** Linnaeus

Numida Linnaeus, 1766, Syst. Nat., ed. 12, 1, p. 273. Type, by monotypy, *Numida meleagris* Linnaeus = *Phasianus meleagris* Linnaeus.

Numida meleagris (Linnaeus). Helmeted Guineafowl.

Phasianus Meleagris Linnaeus, 1758, Syst. Nat., ed. 10, 1, p. 158 (in Africa = Nubia, upper Nile.)

Habitat.—Open woodland, cultivated lands, and grasslands.

Distribution.—*Resident* [*galeata* group] in western Africa east to western Zaire; [*meleagris* group] in Arabia and northeastern Africa south to northeastern Zaire; and [*mitrata* group] in south-central and southern Africa.

Widely domesticated throughout the world, and escaped individuals are frequently reported. Introduced and established in the Hawaiian Islands (in 1874 on Hawaii and possibly other main islands, perhaps not well established), in the West Indies (on Cuba, Isle of Pines, Hispaniola, Puerto Rico, and Barbuda), and on Ascension, Trinidad, and the Cape Verde Islands.

Notes.—The three groups are sometimes regarded as separate species, *N. galeata* Pallas, 1767 [West African Guineafowl], *N. meleagris* [Helmeted Guineafowl], and *N. mitrata* Pallas, 1767 [Tufted Guineafowl], although they all intergrade where their ranges meet (see Crowe 1978).

Family **ODONTOPHORIDAE**: New World Quail

Notes.—Formerly considered a subfamily of Phasianidae, the Odontophoridae are given family status because of evidence from skeletal (Holman 1961) and DNA-DNA hybridization studies (Sibley and Ahlquist 1990).

Genus ***DENDRORTYX*** Gould

Dendrortyx Gould, 1844, Monogr. Odontoph. 1: pl. [3] and text. Type, by monotypy, *Ortyx macroura* Jardine and Selby.

Dendrortyx barbatus Gould. Bearded Wood-Partridge.

Dendrortyx barbatus (Lichtenstein MS) Gould, 1846, Monogr. Odontoph. 2: pl. [2] and text. (Jalapa, Veracruz.)

Habitat.—Montane Evergreen Forest, Pine Forest (950–1550 m; Subtropical Zone).

Distribution.—Resident in eastern San Luis Potosí, eastern Hidalgo, eastern Puebla, and central Veracruz.

Dendrortyx macroura (Jardine and Selby). Long-tailed Wood-Partridge.

Ortyx macroura Jardine and Selby, 1828, Illus. Ornithol. 1: text to pl. 38 (in "Ortyx synopsis specierum"), and pl. 49 and text. (Mexico = mountains about valley of México.)

Habitat.—Montane Evergreen Forest, Pine-Oak Forest (1800–3700 m; Subtropical and Temperate zones).

Distribution.—*Resident* in the mountains of Jalisco, Michoacán, México, Distrito Federal, Morelos, Guerrero, Puebla, Veracruz, and Oaxaca.