

1 **Ghostbusting the national bird checklists: integrative evidence shows that** 2 ***Pionus fuscus* does not occur in Colombia**

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10

11 **Abstract**

12 Natural history collections underpin our understanding of species distributions, yet some historical records
13 remain embedded in modern avifaunal checklists despite limited documentation and no independent
14 verification. One such case concerns the Dusky Parrot *Pionus fuscus* in Colombia: although reported from
15 specimens collected by Melbourne A. Carriker Jr. in 1942 in the Serranía de Perijá, the species has not
16 been observed in the country for nearly eight decades yet continues to be included in national checklists
17 and conservation assessments. We reassessed the validity of this record by applying a multi-evidence
18 framework integrating historic archival reconstruction, specimen-based morphological comparisons,
19 climatic niche analyses, biogeographic limit assessment and contemporary survey-effort data. Historical
20 documentation and morphological evidence based on high-resolution specimen images and associated
21 curatorial records demonstrate that the Carriker specimens correspond to *Pionus chalcopterus*, not *P.*
22 *fuscus*. Climatic niche analyses reveal minimal environmental overlap between *P. chalcopterus* and *P.*
23 *fuscus*, and place the Perijá locality within the climatic niche of *P. chalcopterus*, while regional
24 biogeography and extensive modern birdwatching coverage provide no support for the occurrence of *P.*
25 *fuscus* in Perijá. Together, these concordant lines of evidence demonstrate that *P. fuscus* does not occur in
26 Colombia. Our findings support its removal from national bird lists and conservation assessments and
27 highlight how integrated, multi-evidence reassessments of historical records strengthen ornithological
28 baselines, improve biogeographic inference and ensure that conservation priorities rest on verifiable
29 evidence.

30 **Key words:** Psittacidae, Perijá, niche, misidentification, specimen, occurrence

31

32 INTRODUCTION

33 Natural history collections represent an unparalleled record of Earth's biodiversity. By preserving
34 specimen-based evidence across space and time, they provide the empirical foundation for taxonomic
35 revision, ecological and evolutionary research, and the delimitation of species ranges, thereby informing
36 biogeographic inference and conservation planning (Ballard *et al.* 2017, Meineke *et al.* 2019, Nanglu *et al.*
37 2023). Despite the mobilization of museum databases to open data platforms and the rapid expansion of
38 citizen science efforts (Sullivan 2009, Nelson & Ellis 2018), avian distributions, particularly in the
39 Neotropics, remain incompletely resolved (Lees *et al.* 2020, Hughes *et al.* 2021). The continued
40 documentation of new country records and unexpected range extensions underscores persistent gaps in our
41 understanding of species range limits in one of the world's most diverse regions (*e.g.*, Lopes *et al.* 2009,
42 Donegan 2012, Orihuela-Torres *et al.* 2020). These patterns highlight the need for sustained fieldwork and
43 reaffirm the central role of museum specimens in documenting biodiversity, delineating species
44 distributions and refining biogeographic and evolutionary interpretations (Meineke *et al.* 2019; Miller *et*
45 *al.* 2020; Nanglu *et al.* 2023).

46 Historical vouchers and contemporary observations together underpin modern avian checklists and
47 conservation assessments (Ballard *et al.* 2017). However, some early records were established under
48 limited taxonomic frameworks and sparse documentation yet continue to be incorporated into current
49 databases without independent verification (Marcer *et al.* 2022). When such records imply major
50 distributional discontinuities, their persistence can propagate inaccuracies in ecological, evolutionary, and
51 conservation analyses (Lees *et al.* 2020, Marcer *et al.* 2022). A case that illustrates this challenge concerns
52 the reported occurrence of the Dusky Parrot (*Pionus fuscus*) in Colombia.

53 The Dusky Parrot is a psittacid species restricted to northeastern South America (Rodríguez-
54 Mahecha & Hernández-Camacho 2002). Its range includes eastern Venezuela, the Guianas, and northern
55 Brazil within the northern Amazon Basin, where it inhabits primarily lowland terra firme evergreen forests
56 and, less frequently, seasonally flooded várzea and igapó, typically below 600 m (Collar *et al.* 2020a). A
57 small, disjunct population has been suggested in the western slope of the Serranía de Perijá along the
58 Venezuela–Colombia border, where it has been reported from montane forest (Ayerbe-Quiñones 2022,
59 McMullan 2023).

60 The presence of *P. fuscus* in Colombia was first reported by Dugand (1948), who cited personal
61 communication from Melbourne A. Carriker Jr., a major contributor to the documentation of Colombia's

62 avifauna through his extensive collecting efforts. According to Dugand, Carriker Jr. collected five
63 individuals of *P. fuscus* at “Magdalena: Airoca, 1200 m, above Casacará, Sierra de Perijá (5 Carr.)”.
64 Dugand further suggested that the toponym “Airoca” likely referred to “Hiroca, a Motilon village in the
65 Sierra of Perijá mountains”. This report was notable because, when evaluated considering the species’
66 currently known distribution, it would represent an extension of approximately 950 km west of the nearest
67 confirmed population in eastern Venezuela. Equally remarkable is the long-standing inclusion of this
68 record in the literature. Since Dugand’s publication, *P. fuscus* has been included in nearly all major
69 Colombian checklists (Meyer de Schauensee 1948-1952, Salaman *et al.* 2001, Donegan *et al.* 2016,
70 Avendaño *et al.* 2017, Echeverry-Galvis *et al.* 2022) and field guides (Meyer de Schauensee 1966,
71 Rodríguez-Mahecha & Hernández-Camacho 2002, Ayerbe-Quiñones 2022, McMullan 2023), thereby
72 reinforcing the assumption that the species forms part of Colombia’s avifauna. It has even been included
73 in the National Red List assessment as an Endangered species (Renjifo *et al.* 2014). The only notable
74 exceptions are Hilty & Brown (1986, 2001) and Hilty (2021), who considered the record erroneous or
75 possibly referring to an extirpated population.

76 Despite its long-standing acceptance, *P. fuscus* has not been observed or collected in Colombia
77 since Dugand’s original account. Although survey coverage has been uneven across the broader Perijá
78 region, particularly in the lowlands, ornithological work conducted over subsequent decades has not
79 produced any independently verifiable record of the species (Donegan *et al.* 2003, López *et al.* 2014,
80 Avendaño & Donegan 2015). The absence of modern records, combined with the ecological mismatch
81 between the species’ known lowland habitats and the montane forests of Perijá, raises serious doubt about
82 the validity of the historical report. Advances in ecological, morphological, and biogeographical analyses
83 now allow historical records from natural history collections to be reassessed through the integration of
84 multiple lines of evidence (Schindel & Cook 2018, Watanabe 2019, Miller *et al.* 2020). We therefore re-
85 examined all available historical, morphological, and spatial data to evaluate whether the Colombian
86 record of *P. fuscus* is accurate or instead represents a persistent error in the country’s ornithological
87 literature. Beyond resolving the status of this species, our aim is to illustrate the value of multi-evidence
88 reassessments for maintaining robust ornithological baselines.

89 **METHODS**

90 **Historical documentation assessment**

91 The documentary history associated with museum specimens often requires reconstruction from
92 fragmentary archival sources. To clarify the basis of the Colombian record of *Pionus fuscus*, we revisited
93 original publications, correspondence, field catalogues, and museum records linked to Carriker’s 1942

94 expedition to the Serranía de Perijá (Dugand 1948; Meyer de Schauensee 1948–1952; Paynter 1997). We
95 examined Carriker’s handwritten field notes to identify specimen numbers, collection dates, and localities
96 corresponding to the Perijá material. We also queried the National Museum of Natural History (NMNH)
97 database to locate all *Pionus* specimens collected by Carriker Jr. in 1942 from the locality historically
98 referred to as “Airoca/Eroca”.

99 **Morphological assessment**

100 We assessed the taxonomic identity of the *Pionus* specimens collected by Carriker Jr. in 1942 in the
101 Serranía de Perijá through detailed examination of high-resolution specimen images and associated
102 curatorial records from the National Museum of Natural History (NMNH). Identifications were validated
103 in consultation with NMNH curatorial staff and cross-checked against published diagnostic treatments of
104 *Pionus fuscus* and *Pionus chalcopterus* (e.g., Collar *et al.* 2020a, 2020b). Assessment focused on species-
105 level diagnostic characters, including head and neck coloration, orbital ring pigmentation, bill coloration,
106 facial patterning, distribution of plumage coloration across upperparts and underparts, and overall
107 chromatic contrast.

108 **Niche and biogeographic assessment**

109 To evaluate whether independent climatic and biogeographic evidence supports the historical report
110 of *Pionus fuscus* in Colombia, we compiled curated occurrence data for *P. fuscus* and *P. chalcopterus*, the
111 morphologically most similar congener identified in our assessment. Records were downloaded from
112 eBird (Sullivan *et al.* 2009) and cleaned following the protocol of Carrillo-Restrepo *et al.* (2025), which
113 combines automated outlier detection with manual validation based on elevation, geographic distance, and
114 spatial clustering.

115 Climatic niches for both species were characterized using 19 CHELSA bioclimatic variables at 30
116 arc-second (ca. 1 km) resolution (Karger *et al.* 2017). To reduce dimensionality and collinearity, we
117 performed a joint principal component analysis (PCA) in environmental space using the function
118 *espace_pca* in the *Wallace* package (Kass *et al.* 2023), based on environmental values extracted for
119 cleaned occurrences and background points within each species’ accessible area (M; Barve *et al.* 2011).
120 Accessible areas for each species were defined by intersecting validated occurrences with ecoregional
121 boundaries (Dinerstein *et al.* 2017), and environmental predictors were restricted accordingly.

122 Niche overlap was quantified using two complementary approaches. First, a non-parametric kernel
123 density framework implemented in *ecospat.niche.overlap* from the *ecospat* package (Di Cola *et al.* 2017)
124 was used to calculate Schoener’s D (difference in probability densities between species) and Hellinger-
125 based I (similarity based on niche overlap in environmental space) indices. Second, we constructed

126 ellipsoidal-envelope ecological niche models (Farber & Kadmon 2003) for each species using the R
127 package ntbox (Osorio-Olvera *et al.* 2020), following the methodological framework of Núñez-Penichet *et*
128 *al.* (2021). Ellipsoids were defined by the centroid and covariance matrix of occupied environmental
129 conditions, with limits determined from a chi-squared distribution of Mahalanobis distances (Etherington
130 2019), excluding 5% of marginal conditions. To incorporate variability, we generated 10 replicate
131 ellipsoids per species using random subsamples comprising 75% of occurrence data, and final models
132 were obtained by averaging centroids and covariance matrices across replicates. Overlap between species
133 ellipsoids was quantified using the Jaccard index, calculated as the proportion of shared environmental
134 space relative to the union of both ellipsoids. Statistical significance was assessed with a background-
135 based null model (as in Núñez-Penichet *et al.* 2021), generating 1,000 pairs of ellipsoids from randomly
136 sampled background points (sample size equal to empirical occurrences) and comparing observed overlap
137 against the lower 5% of the null distribution. The georeferenced locality historically referred to as
138 “Airoca/Eroca” was projected into the shared environmental space to evaluate its position relative to the
139 estimated niches of both species.

140 Biogeographic plausibility was assessed by examining the spatial configuration of ecoregions and
141 major habitat types between the core distribution of *P. fuscus* and the Serranía de Perijá using global
142 (Dinerstein *et al.* 2017) and regional (Hazzi *et al.* 2018) frameworks, focusing on potential habitat
143 discontinuities and physiographic barriers.

144 **Survey effort assessment**

145 To determine whether the absence of modern records could reflect undersampling rather than true
146 absence, we quantified contemporary birdwatching effort across northeastern Colombia and northwestern
147 Venezuela using spatial summaries of eBird hotspots and complete checklists (Sullivan *et al.* 2009).
148 Records of *P. fuscus* and *P. chalcopterus* were evaluated relative to survey intensity in the Perijá region.

149 **RESULTS**

150 **Historical documentation evidence**

151 The starting point for clarifying the Colombian record of *Pionus fuscus* was Dugand (1948), who
152 reported several additions to the Colombian avifauna based on information communicated by M. A.
153 Carriker Jr. through correspondence. In listing these records, Dugand noted that the supporting specimens
154 were deposited “mainly in the Smithsonian Institution, Washington (USNM), and the Carnegie Museum,
155 Pittsburgh (CM), with some in our Institute”, referring to the Instituto de Ciencias Naturales, Bogotá
156 (ICN). However, he did not specify in which collection the specimens attributed to *P. fuscus* were

157 deposited (Dugand 1948). This absence of primary specimen identifiers precluded direct verification of
158 the material. Dugand (1948) also indicated that the locality name “Airoca” was likely a misspelling of
159 “Hiroca”, highlighting that even the locality information required reinterpretation.

160 Decades later, Paynter (1997) re-examined Carriker’s field catalogues and addressed the toponymic
161 inconsistencies. He pointed out a misprint “Eroca” in de Schauensee 1952a:1130 (Meyer de Schauensee
162 1948-1952) and noted that the presence of a “Quebrada Eroca” on IGAC maps of Cesar, approximately 25
163 km south of Agustín Codazzi, and the absence of “Hiroca” or “Airoca” on available cartography,
164 suggested that “Eroca” was likely the correct spelling. Based on this clarification, we identified the most
165 plausible location of the site at approximately 9°42’ N, 72°05’ W, at an elevation of ca. 1085 m, consistent
166 with the altitudinal range reported by Carriker Jr. Paynter (1997) also documented the period of Carriker’s
167 collections in the region, noting that he worked at “3,500–7,000 ft [1,050–2,125 m], 21–28, 30 Mar., 1–4,
168 6–10 Apr., and below Hiroca, at 2,000 ft [600 m], 11 May 1942 (USNM; CM, as ‘Eroca’)”. These
169 clarifications established the spatial and temporal framework necessary to locate Carriker’s material and
170 confirmed deposition in the United States National Museum (USNM), now referred to as the National
171 Museum of Natural History (NMNH).

172 Building on Paynter’s work, we examined Carriker’s handwritten field notes from his 1942 Perijá
173 expedition (Smithsonian Institution Archives, Record Unit 7297, Melbourne Armstrong Carriker Papers,
174 Series 2, Folder 37). On page 37, line 8, we located the entry “2326 *Pionus fuscus Airoca*, Apr. 6”. Using
175 this field number, we queried the NMNH specimen and associated digital records (Orrell & Informatics
176 and Data Science Center - Digital Stewardship 2026) to locate all *Pionus* specimens collected by Carriker
177 Jr. in 1942 from “Eroca”. This search returned six specimens collected between 26 March and 6 April
178 1942, catalogued as USNM 372620–372625 (Fig. 1). Notably, USNM-372624 carries field number 2326,
179 establishing an unambiguous link between Carriker’s field number and the museum catalogue number
180 (digital record available at <http://n2t.net/ark:/65665/30a9193f1-f4e3-4c64-9705-6f2869915047>, Orrell &
181 Informatics and Data Science Center - Digital Stewardship 2026). This evidence also corrects a long-
182 standing detail: although Dugand (1948) mentioned five individuals, NMNH records document six
183 specimens (four males and two females), all identified as *Pionus chalcopterus* (Fig. 1), with collection
184 dates and elevations consistent with those reported in the field documentation.

185



186
187 **Figure 1. High-resolution images of specimens collected by Melbourne A. Carriker Jr. in the**
188 **Serranía de Perijá in 1942.** (a) Lateral and dorsal views of the six specimens deposited at the National
189 Museum of Natural History (USNM 372620–372625), shown from left to right as: USNM-372620,
190 USNM-372621, USNM-372622, USNM-372623, USNM-372624 and USNM-372625. All individuals are
191 currently catalogued as *Pionus chalcopterus*. (b) Detailed view of specimen USNM-372624, which carries
192 Carriker’s original field number 2326 and provides the direct link to the field note entry “2326 *Pionus*
193 *fuscus* Airoca, Apr. 6”. Plumage characters visible in the specimen—including the bronze-sheened
194 upperparts, dark bluish head and neck, flesh-coloured orbital ring and yellow bill—are consistent with *P.*

195 *chalcopterus* and inconsistent with *P. fuscus*. (c) Original labels of specimen USNM-372624 indicating a
196 male collected at “Eroca, Sierra Perijá, Dept. Magdalena” on 6 April 1942 by M. A. Carriker Jr.;
197 additional information on the reverse indicates “Motilon Indian Village, 4500 ft” (≈ 1500 m). These
198 archival data confirm the locality and date associated with the specimen series examined in this study.
199 Photographs by C. Milensky, Smithsonian Institution, National Museum of Natural History.

200

201 **Morphological evidence**

202 Examination of high-resolution images of the museum skins, together with published diagnostic
203 treatments and comparative illustrations (Collar *et al.* 2020a, 2020b), revealed plumage characters
204 consistent with *Pionus chalcopterus* (Fig. 1-2). The specimens exhibit a bronze-brown to very dark navy-
205 blue head and neck, a flesh-colored orbital ring, and a yellow bill. The chin is flecked with white above a
206 pink, scaly bib that transitions into deep blue underparts. The back, mantle, scapulars, and wing coverts
207 display a distinct bronze sheen, whereas the rump, flight feathers, and tail are uniformly deep blue (Fig. 1-
208 2; Collar *et al.* 2020b). For comparison, published descriptions of material of *P. fuscus* indicate a slaty-
209 blue head, a pale bluish-grey orbital ring, and a small red patch below the nares. The face is bordered by a
210 subtle whitish fringe; the upperparts are dark brown with paler feather margins; the underparts range from
211 dark greyish to reddish chocolate, often with diffuse barring; and the wings and tail are dark blue, giving
212 the species a darker overall appearance (Fig. 1-2; Collar *et al.* 2020a). None of these diagnostic characters
213 observed in *P. fuscus* were present in the specimens collected by Carriker Jr. at “Eroca” in the Serranía de
214 Perijá. Instead, all examined individuals exhibit the suite of plumage traits described for *P. chalcopterus*.
215 Consistent with these observations, NMNH curatorial records catalogue all specimens under *Pionus*
216 *chalcopterus*, despite their original annotation as *P. fuscus* in Carriker’s field notes. The moment or
217 circumstances under which this taxonomic correction occurred are not documented.

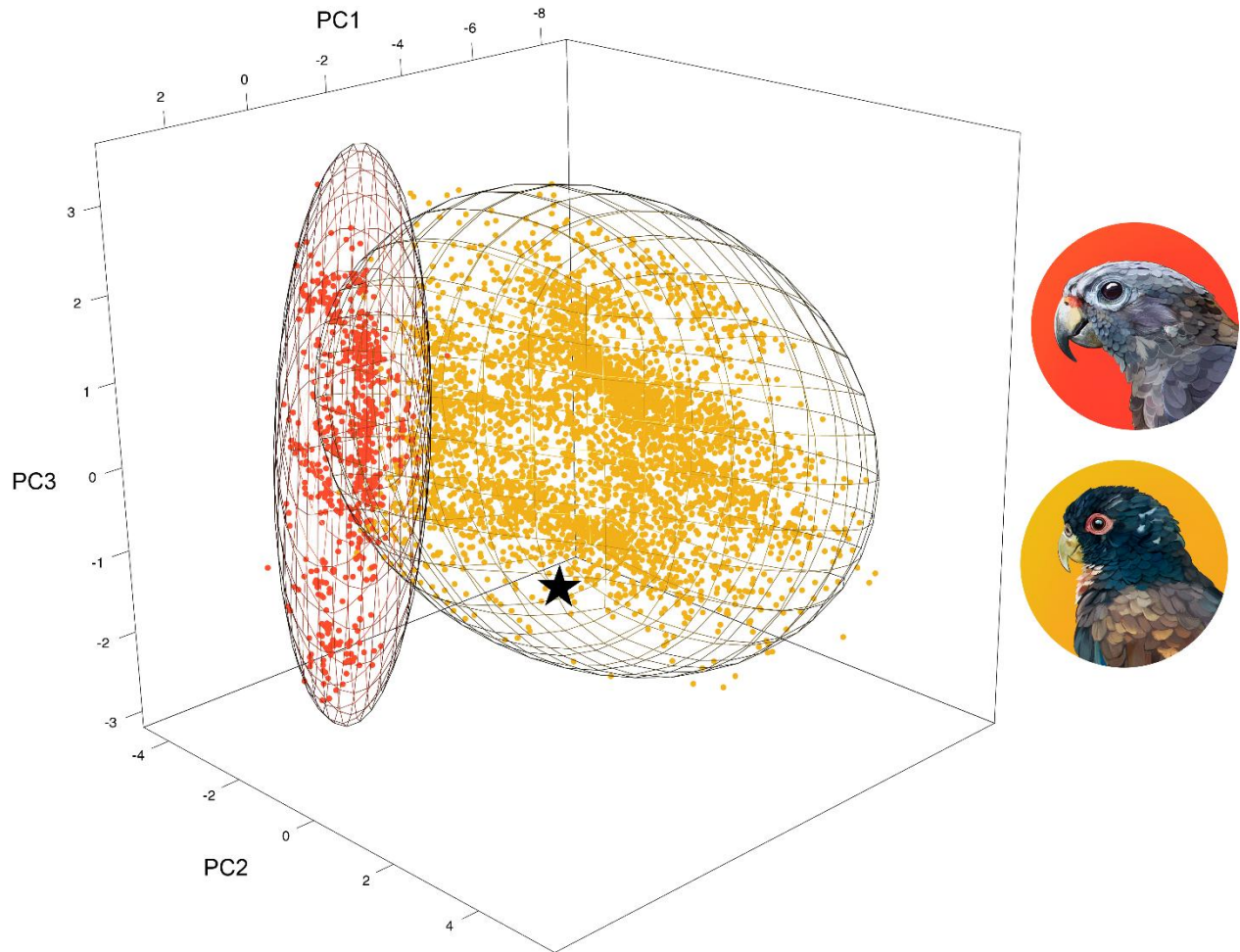
218 **Climatic niche and biogeographical evidence**

219 After cleaning and validation, a total of 725 occurrence records of *Pionus fuscus* and 4,396 of
220 *Pionus chalcopterus* were retained for analysis (from initial datasets of 6,969 and 88,404 records,
221 respectively). These curated occurrences were used to characterize climatic niches and quantify niche
222 overlap between both taxa. The joint PCA analysis of 19 CHELSA bioclimatic variables summarized the
223 environmental variation occupied by both species, with the first three axes explaining 85.52% of total
224 variance. Within this reduced environmental space, niche overlap estimated using the kernel-density
225 framework (ecospat, Di Cola *et al.* 2017) was extremely low (Schoener’s $D = 0.012$; Hellinger-based $I =$
226 0.071), indicating minimal similarity in occupied climatic conditions. Ellipsoidal-envelope niche models

227 yielded consistent results. The observed Jaccard overlap between ellipsoids of *P. fuscus* and *P.*
228 *chalcopterus* was $J = 0.24$, a value below the lower 5% confidence limit of the null distribution generated
229 from background-based simulations (null threshold = 0.287). Projection of the georeferenced locality
230 historically referred to as “Airoca/Eroca” into this environmental space placed it within the ellipsoid of *P.*
231 *chalcopterus* and outside that of *P. fuscus* (Fig. 3).



232
233 **Figure 2.** Comparative illustration highlighting morphological and habitat differences between the
234 focal species. This illustration contrasts *Pionus fuscus* (left) and *Pionus chalcopterus* (right) and depicts
235 each perched on representative host plants. *P. fuscus* appears on *Eschweilera subglandulosa*, typical of
236 lowland forests, while *P. chalcopterus* is shown on the Colombian montane oak (*Trigonobalanus excelsa*),
237 a species endemic to montane forests. Illustration by Steven Pinzon.

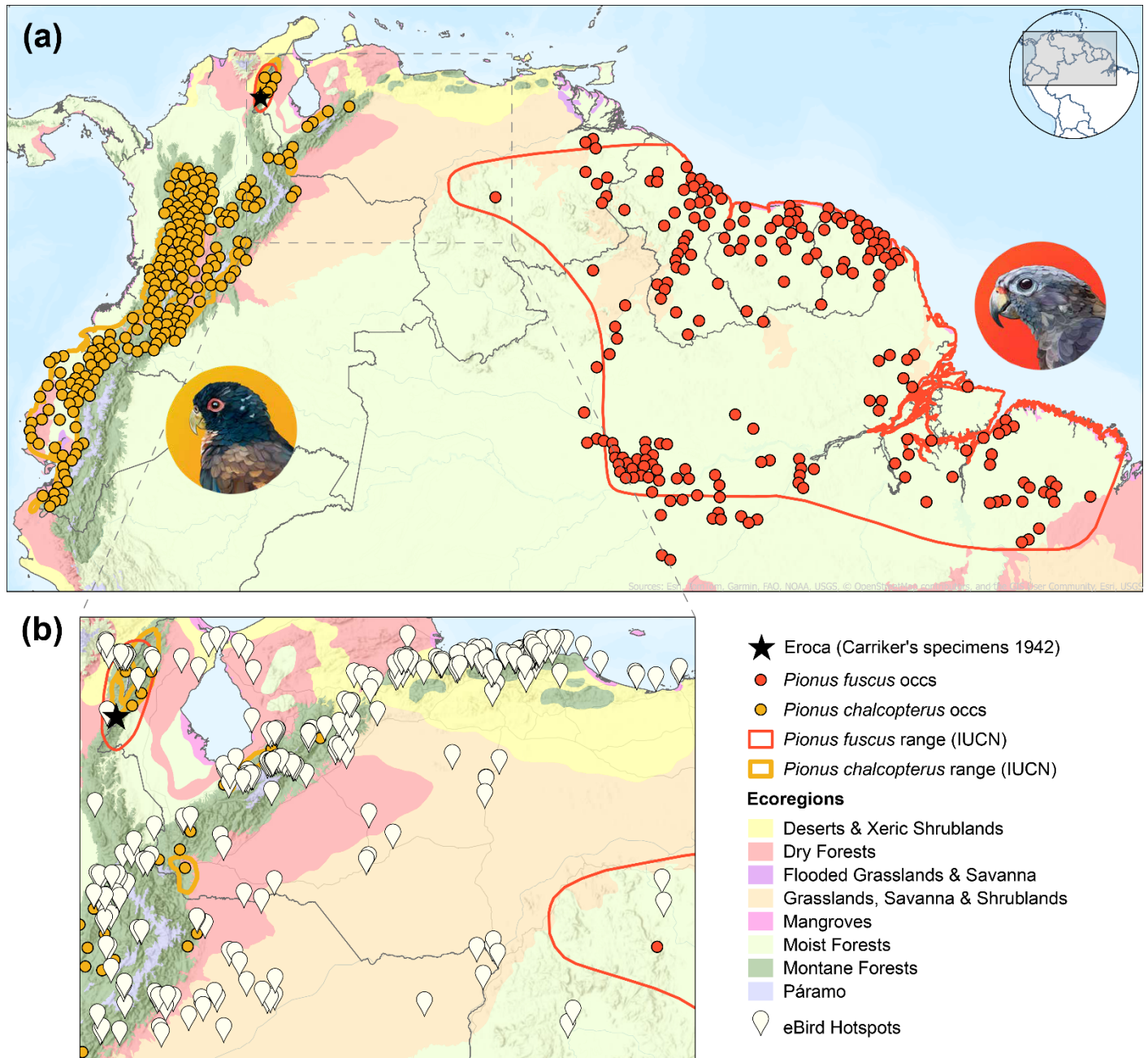


238

239 **Figure 3.** Climatic niche differentiation between the focal species. Three-dimensional climatic niche
240 space defined by the first three principal components (PC1–PC3) derived from 19 CHELSA bioclimatic
241 variables. The red ellipsoid represents the modeled climatic niche of *Pionus fuscus*, and the yellow
242 ellipsoid that of *Pionus chalcopterus*, estimated using parametric 3D ellipsoids (ntbox). The black star
243 marks Carriker’s 1942 “Eroca” specimens, all of which fall inside the climatic niche of *P. chalcopterus*
244 and outside that of *P. fuscus*. Illustrations by Steven Pinzon.

245

246 Examination of ecoregional frameworks revealed a marked spatial discontinuity between the core
247 distribution of *P. fuscus* in the Guianan Shield and the Serranía de Perijá (Fig. 4a). The intervening
248 landscape is characterized by extensive dry forest formations, savanna systems, and high-elevation
249 Andean environments (Dinerstein *et al.* 2017, Hazzi *et al.* 2018), contrasting with the humid lowland
250 forest habitats where *P. fuscus* is documented.



251
252 **Figure 4.** Biogeographical limits and sampling evidence regarding the occurrence of the focal species in
253 the Serranía de Perijá. (a) Biogeographical comparison of the distributional limits of *Pionus fuscus* (red)
254 and *Pionus chalcopterus* (yellow), highlighting that only the latter occupies the montane forests of Perijá.
255 (b) Summary of birdwatching effort across northwestern Venezuela and northeastern Colombia, showing
256 extensive sampling coverage and consistent documentation of *P. chalcopterus* in Perijá, with *P. fuscus*
257 remaining entirely undetected. Terrestrial ecoregions based on [Dinerstein et al. \(2017\)](#).

259 Survey-effort evidence

260 Finally, contemporary sampling data provides an additional independent line of evidence. Across
261 northeastern Colombia and northwestern Venezuela, eBird currently includes 1,499 active hotspots, 50 of
262 which contain more than 100 complete checklists and over 300 recorded species, reflecting sustained
263 survey coverage in the region (Fig. 4b). Despite this sampling intensity, *Pionus fuscus* has not been
264 reported from the Perijá region. In contrast, *P. chalcopterus* has been documented in 1,981 complete
265 checklists, and all 58 records supported by photographic evidence correspond to this species.

266 DISCUSSION

267 All lines of evidence examined in this study, historical, morphological, climatic, biogeographical,
268 and survey effort, converge on a single conclusion: the Dusky Parrot (*Pionus fuscus*) does not occur in
269 Colombia. The historical record reported by Dugand (1948) was based on a misidentified series of *P.*
270 *chalcopterus* collected by Carriker Jr. in 1942, and no independent evidence supports the presence of *P.*
271 *fuscus* in the country.

272 Archival reconstruction linked Carriker's field notes to six specimens deposited at NMNH, and
273 morphological examination showed that all exhibit the diagnostic plumage characters of *P. chalcopterus*
274 (Collar *et al.* 2020a, 2020b). Although fading associated with specimen age can affect superficial
275 coloration in museum skins, the visible structural and chromatic traits are consistent with *P. chalcopterus*
276 and incompatible with *P. fuscus* (Fig. 1-2). The convergence of documentary and morphological evidence
277 resolves a misidentification that persisted in Colombian literature for more than seven decades and
278 removes the only historical basis for including *P. fuscus* in the Colombian avifauna.

279 Independent ecological analyses reinforce this conclusion. Kernel-based and ellipsoidal niche
280 models revealed minimal climatic overlap between *P. fuscus* and *P. chalcopterus*, and the 1942 locality
281 falls within the climatic niche of *P. chalcopterus* but outside that of *P. fuscus* (Fig. 3). Biogeographic
282 structure provides an additional constraint (Fig. 4a). *Pionus fuscus* is restricted to lowland humid forests of
283 the Guianan Shield and northern Brazil, typically below 600 m. Reaching the Serranía de Perijá would
284 require crossing the Apure–Villavicencio and Maracaibo dry forests, the Llanos savannas, and the high-
285 elevation systems of the Cordillera de Mérida—landscapes that differ markedly from its known habitat
286 and form a large ecological discontinuity between the Guianan Shield and Perijá (Fig. 4a; Dinerstein *et al.*
287 2017, Hazzi *et al.* 2018). In contrast, the environmental conditions of Perijá fall within the documented
288 range of *P. chalcopterus* (Fig. 3). Together, climatic differentiation and regional landscape configuration
289 render the occurrence of *P. fuscus* in Perijá highly implausible.

290 Contemporary survey data provides a further independent test. Although the broader Perijá region
291 has been surveyed repeatedly, sampling coverage of the lowlands has been more limited, and much of that
292 landscape has long been heavily deforested (Donegan *et al.* 2003, López *et al.* 2014, Avendaño &
293 Donegan 2015), leaving little suitable habitat for a lowland humid-forest species such as *P. fuscus*. Even
294 so, *P. fuscus* has not been reported from the region, whereas *P. chalcopterus* is regularly documented (Fig.
295 4b). The rediscovery of other lowland forest birds in remnant habitats of northern Colombia, such as
296 *Crypturellus saltuarius* (Donegan *et al.* 2003, Laverde-R. & Cadena 2014), shows that the absence of
297 records alone is not always decisive. However, such cases typically involve cryptic or low-density taxa
298 capable of persisting undetected in small relict populations. In contrast, *Pionus* parrots are conspicuous,
299 vocal, and often occur in detectable groups, making prolonged non-detection under survey effort and
300 expanding birdwatching coverage unlikely. The absence of modern records therefore aligns with all other
301 lines of evidence.

302 This reassessment has immediate implications for national avifaunal lists. Under the criteria of the
303 Comité Colombiano de Registros Ornitológicos
304 (<https://ccro.asociacioncolombianadeornitologia.org/criterios/>), species should be included only when
305 supported by independently verifiable evidence (*e.g.* catalogued museum specimens, photographic or
306 audio vouchers with reliable metadata, GPS-tracked individuals, or peer-reviewed publications). In the
307 case of *P. fuscus*, no such evidence exists for Colombia, and the Carriker Jr. series has been shown to
308 belong entirely to *P. chalcopterus* (Fig. 1). We therefore recommend that *P. fuscus* be formally removed
309 from Colombian bird lists.

310 This recommendation should be viewed within a broader recent trend in Colombian ornithology.
311 Over the past two decades, the national bird list has grown substantially through new field discoveries,
312 taxonomic revisions and improved coverage of previously underexplored regions (Donegan 2012,
313 Avendaño *et al.* 2017, Echeverry-Galvis *et al.* 2022), but parallel efforts have also sought to strengthen the
314 evidentiary standards by which species are accepted. Critical revisions of the Colombian avifauna have
315 already resulted in the removal of several taxa based on doubtful documentation or misidentified material
316 (*e.g.* Donegan *et al.* 2009, 2010, Lobo & Henríquez 2014, Echeverry-Galvis *et al.* 2022). Our
317 reassessment of *P. fuscus* contributes to this ongoing process of refining the national list through more
318 rigorous evaluation of legacy records.

319 The correction also carries ecological and conservation implications. *P. fuscus* was listed as
320 Endangered in the *Libro Rojo de Aves de Colombia* (Renjifo *et al.* 2014) and incorporated into national
321 threatened-species legislation (Resolution 1912 of 2017, Ministry of Environment and Sustainable
322 Development, Republic of Colombia). Maintaining species under threat categories without confirmed

323 national presence risks misdirecting research priorities, conservation planning, and funding away from
324 taxa with verified occurrence and demonstrated need. Accurate species lists are foundational to effective
325 biodiversity policy. More broadly, removing *P. fuscus* from the Colombian avifauna prevents its
326 erroneous inclusion in biogeographical and evolutionary analyses using widely used distributional
327 databases such as [BirdLife International & Handbook of the Birds of the World \(2026\)](#) range maps.
328 Spurious locality data can bias inferences about range limits, historical connectivity, and diversification
329 processes, particularly in groups such as Neotropical parrots where distributional boundaries inform
330 phylogeographic hypotheses (e.g. [Ribas et al. 2007](#)).

331 This case underscores the importance of revisiting legacy records through integrated approaches
332 that combine archival research, morphological validation, ecological modelling, and contemporary survey
333 data. Natural history collections remain indispensable to biodiversity science, but their value depends on
334 continued taxonomic scrutiny, curatorial precision, and ecological validation to maintain reliable
335 ornithological and biogeographical baselines.

336

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351

352 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST**

353 The authors have no competing interests.

354 DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

355 The data and R code supporting the findings of this study are openly available in Zenodo at
356 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.19198462>. The official Spanish translation of the manuscript is likewise
357 deposited in this repository (Carrillo-Restrepo & Velásquez-Tibatá 2026).

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