

# Large Language Models are Geographically Biased

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## Abstract

Large Language Models (LLMs) inherently carry the biases contained in their training corpora, which can lead to the perpetuation of societal harm. As the impact of these foundation models grows, understanding and evaluating their biases becomes crucial to achieving fairness and accuracy. We propose to study what LLMs know about the world we live in through the lens of geography. This approach is particularly powerful as there is ground truth for the numerous aspects of human life that are meaningfully projected onto geographic space such as culture, race, language, politics, and religion. We show various problematic geographic biases, which we define as systemic errors in geospatial predictions. Initially, we demonstrate that LLMs are capable of making accurate zero-shot geospatial predictions in the form of ratings that show strong monotonic correlation with ground truth (Spearman’s  $\rho$  of up to 0.89). We then show that LLMs exhibit common biases across a range of objective and subjective topics. In particular, LLMs are clearly biased against locations with lower socioeconomic conditions (e.g. most of Africa) on a variety of sensitive subjective topics such as attractiveness, morality, and intelligence (Spearman’s  $\rho$  of up to 0.70). Finally, we introduce a bias score to quantify this and find that there is significant variation in the magnitude of bias across existing LLMs.

## 1. Introduction

Large language models (LLMs), as foundational models, have demonstrated remarkable effectiveness across diverse domains such as healthcare, education, law, finance, and scientific research (Bommasani et al., 2021; Zhao et al., 2023). With millions engaging directly and many more impacted by their usage, the influence of LLMs is rapidly

expanding (Dash et al., 2023). This growth in impact makes it crucial to assess potential harms, particularly those stemming from biases inherent in their training data, which is often sourced from unprocessed internet content (Del’etang et al., 2023; Dodge et al., 2021). Such biases, if unchecked, risk perpetuating societal harm (Gallegos et al., 2023).

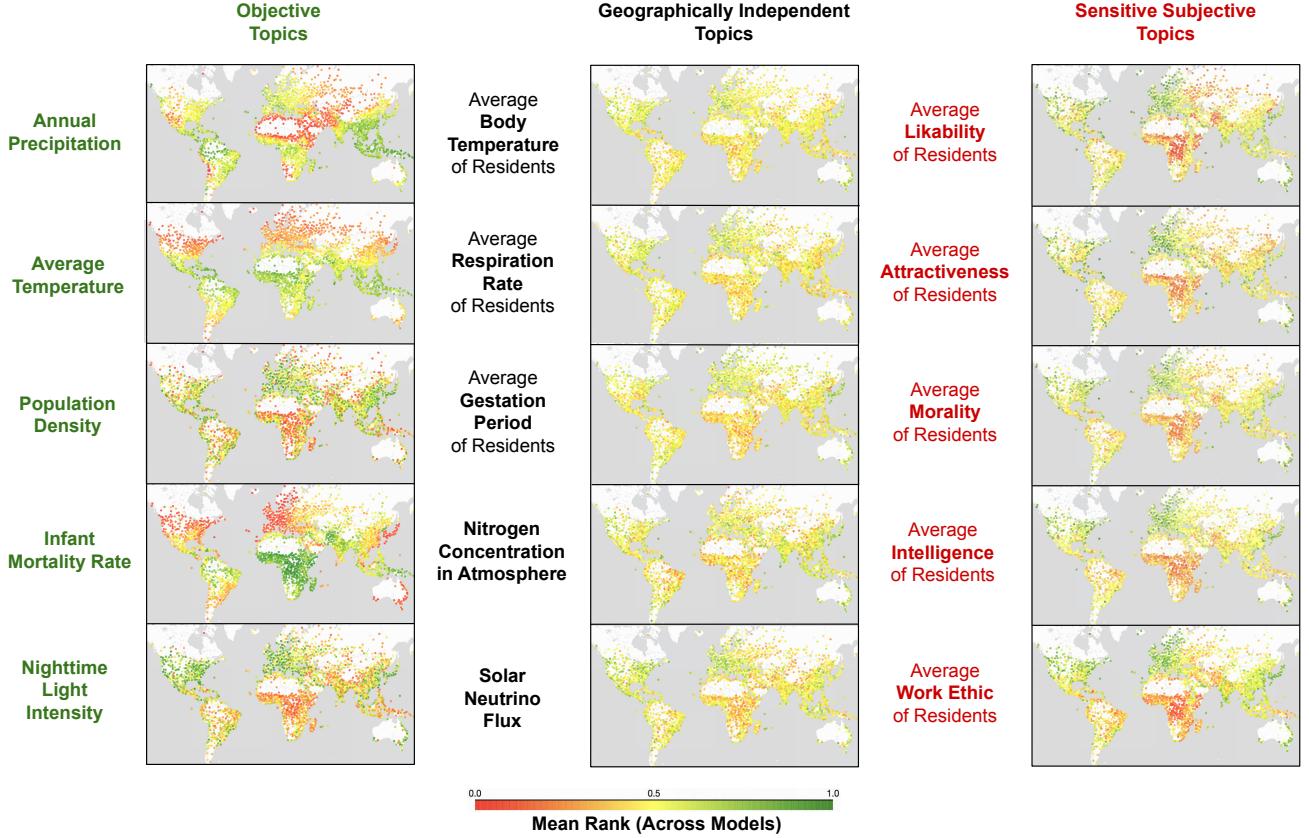
The biases of LLMs are evaluated across various dimensions. For instance, the Bias in Open-Ended Language Generation Dataset (BOLD) (Dhamala et al., 2021) examines bias in profession, gender, race, religion, and political ideology, while the Bias Benchmark for QA (BBQ) (Parish et al., 2021) assesses bias across age, disability status, gender, nationality, physical appearance, race, religion, and socioeconomic status. These datasets assess different social biases, a notion related to group fairness (Hardt et al., 2016; Kamiran & Calders, 2012) and is broadly used to refer to disparate treatment or outcomes between social groups (Gallegos et al., 2023). Our paper introduces and evaluates a new dimension of bias, termed **geographic bias**, where social groups are distinguished by location and bias is defined as systemic errors in geospatial predictions.

Abstractly, evaluating the biases of LLMs on any topic through the lens of geography is very powerful. This is because numerous aspects of human life—such as culture, race, language, economics, politics, and religion—are meaningfully projected onto geographic space. The biases, or systemic errors, are relative to the target distribution of the topic in consideration and can be interpreted in different ways. For example, biases on objective topics such as population density can be interpreted as misrepresentations, and biases on sensitive subjective topics such as attractiveness can be interpreted as stereotypes. This approach is inclusive of all people on Earth and any biases can be easily attributed to specific social groups based on where they live. Furthermore, it facilitates the examination of correlations between these biases and various anchoring bias distributions. For example, if one expects LLMs to be biased towards urban locations or socioeconomic conditions, they can verify if the predictions are correlated with proxies such as population density or infant survival rate respectively.

This assessment of geographic biases assumes that LLMs contain this knowledge. Indeed, GeoLLM (Manvi et al., 2023) shows that they do have substantial geospatial knowl-

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**Figure 1.** The mean rank plots illustrate agreement across LLM predictions, with areas of green and red highlighting regions consistently rated higher or lower respectively. For objective topics, the maps demonstrate the zero-shot geographic knowledge of LLMs. The sensitive subjective topics reveal agreement that indicates strong socioeconomic biases. The geographically independent topics serve as the control.

edge which can be extracted by fine-tuning them on prompts generated from auxiliary map data. However, finetuning LLMs on specific datasets may obfuscate inherent biases which arise in the widely used "zero-shot" setting, where the model is prompted without any additional gradient updates. Thus, we first demonstrate that LLMs can make accurate zero-shot geospatial predictions that show strong monotonic correlation with ground truth data. Using modified GeоЛLM prompts designed to elicit ratings of locations around the world for any topic of interest, they can achieve Spearman's  $\rho$  of up to 0.85, 0.84, 0.78, 0.82, 0.89, and 0.84 on Infant Mortality Rate, Population Density, Built-Up to Non Built-Up Area Ratio, Nighttime Light Intensity, Average Temperature, and Annual Precipitation, respectively.

Next, we discover that LLMs have similar biases on each objective topic as indicated by common overestimates or underestimates in ratings. However, on sensitive subjective topics such as attractiveness and morality, which we expect to be constant or distributed randomly across space, we observe that *LLMs are biased against areas with lower socioeconomic conditions*. Interestingly, the LLMs' predictions are strongly correlated with infant survival rate

(Spearman's  $\rho$  of up to 0.70).

Lastly, we propose a metric to assess the magnitude of geographic bias in LLMs and find large variance in bias exhibited across existing LLMs. Our metric incorporates the mean absolute deviation (MAD) of output ratings, which we find to decrease significantly based on how sensitive a given topic is, supporting its use as an indicator of bias on sensitive subjective topics. However, even with a small MAD, an LLM can still be biased on a subjective topic if its ratings are monotonically related to another topic with a different geographic distribution. To account for this, our metric also makes use of Spearman's rank correlation  $\rho$  with respect to an anchoring bias distribution like Infant Mortality.

Summarized, we present the following contributions:

1. LLMs are capable of making very accurate zero-shot geospatial predictions. Their ratings show strong monotonic correlation with ground truth. Even greater performance can be achieved using the expected value of the ratings (with logprobs).

2. LLMs exhibit geographic biases across a range of both objective and subjective topics. Of particular concern, LLMs are biased against areas with lower socioeconomic conditions on a variety of sensitive subjective topics. For example, residents in Africa are consistently rated less attractive than residents in Europe.
3. All LLMs are likely biased to some degree, which can be revealed when using the expected value of the ratings. However, some models exhibit significantly less bias than others. For example, GPT-4 Turbo is significantly less biased than Gemini Pro.

## 2. Related Work

**Social Biases in NLP** Social bias is a term broadly used to refer to disparate treatment or outcomes between social groups that arise from historical and structural power imbalances (Gallegos et al., 2023). This term stems and evolved from notions of group fairness and demographic parity from previous literature (Hardt et al., 2016; Kamiran & Calders, 2012; Chouldechova, 2016). This type of bias has the greatest potential for harm in the real world (Smith et al., 2022). There are many different types of social biases that have been identified and explored in NLP (Gupta et al., 2023). This includes gender bias (de Vassimon Manela et al., 2021; Park et al., 2018; Du et al., 2021; Bartl et al., 2020; Webster et al., 2020; Tan & Celis, 2019), racial bias (Nadeem et al., 2020; Garimella et al., 2021; Nangia et al., 2020; Tan & Celis, 2019), ethnic bias (Ahn & Oh, 2021; Garg et al., 2017; Li et al., 2020; Abid et al., 2021; Manzini et al., 2019; Venkit et al., 2023), age bias (Nangia et al., 2020; Diaz et al., 2018), and sexual-orientation bias (Nangia et al., 2020; Cao & Daumé, 2019). However, the study of biases has often been focused on the US and biases relevant to the global population are often neglected (Yogarajan et al., 2023; Besse et al., 2020; Liang et al., 2021; Mahabadi et al., 2019; Schick et al., 2021). Furthermore, certain bias evaluations only address specific types of bias and may not readily apply to any other types (Gupta et al., 2023). Our focus is on geographic bias, which encompasses a wide range of social groups and biases globally. This includes distinctions in race, ethnicity, socioeconomic status, culture, and politics, all of which are inherently linked to geography.

**Prompt-based Bias Datasets** Prompt completion datasets contain the starts of sentences, which can then be completed by the LLM (Gallegos et al., 2023). RealToxicityPrompts (Gehman et al., 2020) measures the toxicity of generations given toxic and non-toxic web-based prompts. Bias in Open-Ended Language Generation Dataset (BOLD) (Dhamala et al., 2021) introduces web-based prompts to assess bias in profession, gender, race, religion, and political ideology. HONEST (Nozza et al., 2021) provides sentences to measure negative gender stereotypes

in English. TrustGPT (Huang et al., 2023) evaluates toxicity and performance disparities between social groups. Other prompt-based datasets use a question-answering format (Gallegos et al., 2023). Bias Benchmark for QA (BBQ) (Parrish et al., 2021) is a question-answering dataset to assess bias across age, disability status, gender, nationality, physical appearance, race, religion, and socioeconomic status. UnQover (Li et al., 2020) contains underspecified questions to assess stereotypes across gender, nationality, race, and religion. Gender Representation-Bias for Information Retrieval (Grep-BiasIR) (Krieg et al., 2022) provides gender-neutral search queries for document retrieval to assess gender bias. Our dataset is based on ratings on a scale from 0.0 to 9.9, which is a form of the question-answering format. It is the first prompt-based dataset that comprehensively evaluates various forms of geographic biases.

**LLMs for Geospatial Tasks** Researchers have recently started to explore the use of LLMs for various geospatial tasks. GeoLLM (Manvi et al., 2023) explores the question of whether the vast amounts of knowledge compressed within LLMs can be leveraged for geospatial prediction tasks. They effectively extract geospatial knowledge from LLMs with auxiliary map data and demonstrate the utility their approach across a variety of tasks of central interest to the international community. Mai et al. (2023) demonstrated the usability of large language models on various geospatial applications. GeoGPT (Zhang et al., 2023) has been proposed as a GPT-3.5-based autonomous AI tool that can conduct geospatial data collection, processing, and analysis in an autonomous manner with natural language instruction. Deng et al. (2023) developed K2, an LLM in geoscience, by fine-tuning on geoscience text. They demonstrate improved performance on various NLP tasks in the geoscience domain. However, K2 is limited to the common NLP tasks such as question answering, summarization, and text classification. Our work primarily extends upon the foundation laid by GeoLLM. To avoid the confounding factor of fine-tuning in bias evaluations, we add a prefix to the GeoLLM prompt to facilitate zero-shot ratings.

## 3. Methods

Before assessing bias, we need to facilitate LLMs to make accurate zero-shot geospatial predictions. While GeoLLM (Manvi et al., 2023) enables LLMs to make effective geospatial predictions, it achieved this with fine-tuning. Unfortunately, this would be a confounding factor in bias evaluations because biases in the fine-tuned models could be introduced or exacerbated by the fine-tuning procedure and data. Instead, we aim to design prompts that allow zero-shot predictions. We can then visualize and analyze these predictions and their associated errors to determine a suitable measure of bias.

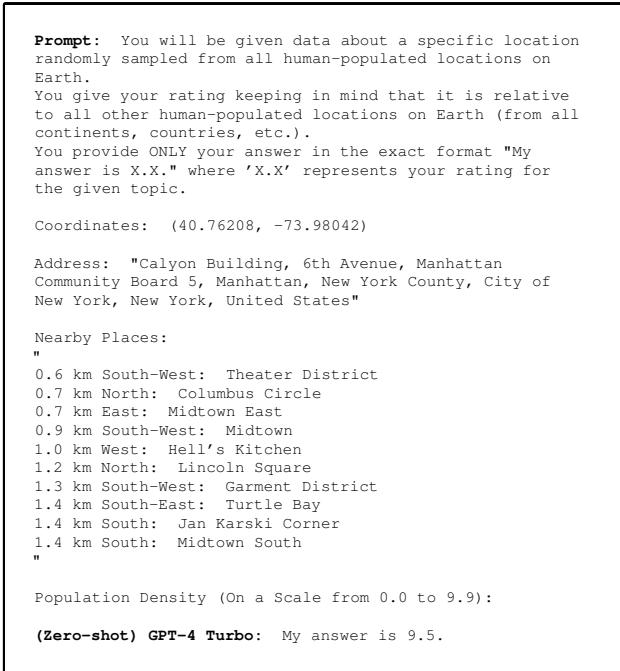


Figure 2. Example prompt for zero-shot geospatial predictions. It includes a GeoLLM (Manvi et al., 2023) prompt as well as a prefix that provides context about the task.

### 3.1. Zero-shot Geospatial Predictions with LLMs

Abstractly, we want to map geographic coordinates (latitude, longitude) to a response variable using regression. Here, geographic coordinates are used as a universal and precise interface for geographic knowledge extraction. Prompts are generated at each coordinate to do this in a zero-shot manner. Benchmarks can be created using geospatial datasets with Spearman’s  $\rho$  as the performance metric. For example, we want to be able to ask an LLM to predict population density across the world using a suitable prompt, and compare the answers with ground truth values from governments.

**Prompts** The purpose of our prompts is to elicit values from an LLM for a target variable of interest (e.g. population density) for a set of geographic coordinates with respect to a particular topic. Using the GeoLLM (Manvi et al., 2023) prompt alone for zero-shot predictions does not work as it is intended to be used with fine-tuning (initial experiments with these prompts resulted in a very low answer-rate from the LLMs). To elicit accurate zero-shot geospatial predictions, the prompt needs to provide enough context about the task to optimize for performance and avoid refusals to answer. Although various prompt formats might be effective, we utilize one that we find consistently elicits accurate predictions on objective topics. The prompt consists of a prefix with three sentences that describe the task

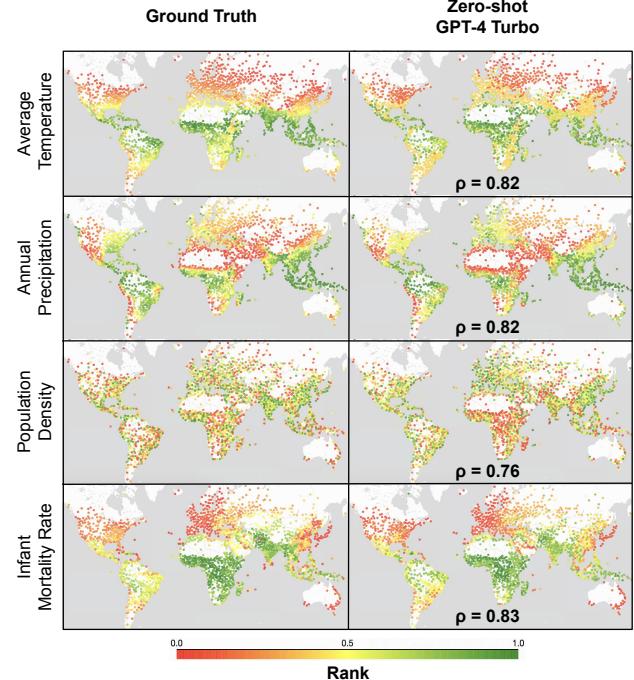


Figure 3. Zero-shot GPT-4 Turbo comparison with ground truth.

and a GeoLLM prompt that provides spatial context for the respective coordinates as well as the name of the topic and rating scale. An example of a prompt is shown in Figure 2.

**Obtaining Ratings from LLMs** LLMs are probabilistic and we need to adapt them to this zero-shot regression setting. We find that there are two ways to effectively and deterministically do this. The first method is to simply get the most probable rating. Since there are only 3 tokens total required for a rating (e.g. “6.7”) with the first token (first digit) being the most important, greedy sampling (temperature of 0.0) likely leads to the most probable rating. This only requires control over the model’s temperature but limits the predictions to discrete values. The second method is to get the expected value of the first digit of the rating. This requires access to the (log) probability distribution over the token generation (called “logprobs” in OpenAI’s API). This is not always available for closed-sourced models but allows for far more precise ratings as they are continuous values.

**Creating Benchmarks with Geospatial Datasets** In order to create an evaluation of knowledge for a particular topic with known ground truth, one simply needs a dataset consisting of geographic coordinates (latitude, longitude) and their associated ground truth. Prompts then have to be generated for those coordinates. They can then be used to query an instruction-finetuned or chat-based LLM on the desired topic.

**Spearman’s  $\rho$  as the Performance Metric** Pearson’s  $r$  is often used in the context of geospatial predictions (Manvi et al., 2023; Perez et al., 2017; Jean et al., 2016; Yeh et al., 2020; 2021). However, this may not be a good fit in this context as the model’s distribution of ratings is rarely uniform and can be skewed. This is reasonable as the model does not know what specific ratings (e.g. “5.1” or an “8.3”) means in the context of all topics, especially subjective ones. We are more interested in the presence of shifts in its ratings which determine their respective rank. In other words, we care that the ratings are monotonically correlated with the ground truth. For this reason, we use Spearman’s  $\rho$  (eq. 1) (Spearman, 1961), which is equivalent to Pearson’s  $r$  with the respective ranks instead of the ratings.

$$\rho(x, y) = \frac{\text{Cov}(R(x), R(y))}{\sigma_{R(x)}\sigma_{R(y)}} \quad (1)$$

where  $x$  is the random variable representing the model’s predicted ratings,  $y$  is the random variable corresponding to a target topic (eg: infant mortality),  $R(x)$  is the rank variable for  $x$  (similarly for  $R(y)$ ), and  $\sigma_{R(x)}$  is the standard deviation for the rank variable  $R(x)$  (similarly for  $\sigma_{R(y)}$ ).

### 3.2. Visualizations on Maps

To visualize an LLM’s ratings on a global scale, we select 2000 prompts aiming for a good balance between relevant locations as well as good geographical coverage. To do so, we use a combination of importance sampling by (human) population density and farthest point sampling. With ratings at these prompts, there are a few ways to visualize the data, each with their own use cases.

**Plotting Ratings vs Ranks** The simplest way to visualize the data is to plot the ratings themselves. This can be useful to see the magnitude of deviation in the model’s ratings. However, the model’s distribution of ratings can be arbitrarily skewed and is rarely uniform, making the visualizations difficult to interpret and compare. This is to be expected as the ratings are made zero-shot. The LLMs do not know what a specific rating means in the context of all topics, especially subjective ones. Instead, one can plot the fractional ranking of the ratings. Fractional ranking assigns a rank to each rating based on its position when sorted and takes the average of the ranks in case of ties, then scales these ranks to a range between 0 and 1. This allows us to visualize the relative shifts in its ratings which determine the ranks. This is important as we care about the monotonic relationship between the ratings and the ground truth. The ranks are far more consistent across models and can easily be visually compared with ground truth. Additionally, very subtle biases can be visualized when using ranks, as the distribution is forced to be uniform and is robust to outliers. For these reasons, we prefer plotting the ranks of the ratings.

**Plotting Rank Errors** Plotting rank errors can be used to show overestimates and underestimates for ranking. This is useful for revealing biases on objective tasks with ground truth. We indicate overestimates in rank with the color red and underestimates in rank with the color blue. For example, if a location is predicted to have higher population density than ground truth would indicate, then it would be plotted red. Errors closer to zero are plotted closer to white.

### 3.3. Bias Score for Sensitive Subjective Topics

In our work, bias is understood as systemic errors in predictions. For example, the model may overestimate the population density in certain regions of the world. For sensitive subjective topics, such as attractiveness for which there is no ground truth, we introduce a metric to measure bias where the ideal distribution is either constant or random. We define the bias metric for sensitive topics with the idea that the model should ideally give the same rating for every location, give random ratings (to represent uncertainty), or refuse to give ratings. Our bias score  $B_y(x)$  is given as:

$$B_y(x) = \rho(x, y) \cdot \text{MAD}(x) \cdot a \quad (2)$$

where  $x$  corresponds to the LLM’s output ratings for the given topic,  $y$  is the target distribution (eg: infant mortality) with respect to which bias is measured,  $\rho(x, y)$  is Spearman’s rank correlation (eq.1), MAD is mean absolute deviation of  $x$  (eq.3), and  $a$  is the answer rate of the LLM.

**Correlation with Anchoring Bias Distribution** To present uncertainty, ratings should not be correlated with any attributes that define social groups. However, it is impractical to test for correlation with all possible attributes. To provide specificity, we propose to anchor the measure of randomness with respect to an anchoring bias distribution  $y$ . If there is correlation with a proxy of this anchoring bias distribution we can say the LLM’s ratings  $x$  are biased. Further, one can measure geographical bias along a different axis by changing the anchor distribution  $y$ . For example, while we measure bias towards infant mortality (a proxy of socioeconomic conditions), we can change  $y$  to another anchor such as population density (a proxy of urban locations) to uncover different biases.

**Mean Absolute Deviation of Ratings** One way to be unbiased is to give the same rating for every location. We go further and claim that large deviations in ratings are not appropriate for sensitive subjective topics due to their controversial nature. We leverage the fact that these ratings hold semantic value as they are responses to natural language prompts that explicitly define them as ratings on a scale from 0.0 to 9.9. For example, when rating attractiveness on this scale, providing the set of ratings 5.3, 5.9, and 6.7 is

more appropriate than the set of ratings 3.3, 6.7, and 9.5. We use mean absolute deviation (MAD) to measure this component of the bias, defined as:

$$\text{MAD}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n |\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{x}]| \quad (3)$$

where  $n$  is the number of predictions,  $\mathbf{x}_i$  is the  $i$ 'th rating predicted by the model, and  $\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{x}]$  is the mean of the ratings.

**Answer Rate** Despite the fact that our prompt is designed to elicit genuine ratings, there are cases where the model refuses to answer either because it claims that it does not know the answer or that providing a rating is not appropriate. This should be expected as some ratings can be difficult to make or are inherently harmful. All other things equal, a model that refuses to provide a rating on a sensitive topic a significant portion of the time is likely not as biased as one that provides a rating every time. For this reason, we take into account the answer rate of the model, allowing for an additional way to be unbiased.

## 4. Experiments

We evaluate the performance and bias of a set of LLMs using a wide range of topics. We use GPT-4 Turbo (gpt-4-1106-preview) (OpenAI, 2023a), GPT-3.5 Turbo (gpt-3.5-turbo-0613) (OpenAI, 2023b), Gemini Pro (Google, 2023), Mixtral 8x7B (Mistral, 2024), and Llama 2 70B (Meta, 2023) as they are capable and widely used LLMs.

### 4.1. Topics

**Objective Topics with Ground Truth** We pick six well-defined topics that have ground truth as an initial set of benchmarks to measure performance as well as bias. This includes Infant Mortality Rate (CIESIN, 2021), Population Density (Tatem, 2017), Built-Up to Non Built-Up Area Ratio (JRC & CIESIN, 2021; Florczyk et al., 2019), Nighttime Light Intensity (Elvidge et al., 2017), Average Temperature (Karger et al., 2018), and Annual Precipitation (Karger et al., 2018). The first four topics are particularly important as they test knowledge for socioeconomic conditions, where people live, infrastructure, and economic activity. The last two serve as distinguishable but simple distributions that can be used to verify if the model can make zero-shot geospatial predictions through ratings. We use areas of 25 square kilometers to sample ground truth data, then rank those values for ground truth comparisons.

**Sensitive Subjective Topics** We choose sensitive subjective topics that are highly personal and controversial. This is because the desired distribution of ratings is simply con-

stant and any generalizations made about these topics are inherently biased. If the model does not provide constant or completely random ratings for every location, it is considered biased since assigning higher ratings to a region for a desirable quality implies that other regions have less of that desirable quality. In particular, we choose Average Likability of Residents, Average Attractiveness of Residents, Average Morality of Residents, Average Intelligence of Residents, and Average Work Ethic of Residents.

**Geographically Independent Topics** Geographically independent topics are used to confirm that it is possible to observe little agreement between models on topics. These topics need to satisfy two conditions. The first condition is that they are independent of geography. This means we know that there is almost no correlation with geography (including health care, education, culture, race, etc.). The second condition is that the value of the topic is not constant since it is not possible to give a rating on a topic that stays completely constant. For example, one cannot give a rating for the average number of biological parents as this would always be 2. It is surprisingly difficult to find topics that satisfy these conditions. We use Average Body Temperature of Residents, Average Respiration Rate of Residents, Average Gestation Period of Residents, Nitrogen Concentration in Atmosphere, and Solar Neutrino Flux as the geographically independent topics.

### 4.2. Zero-shot Performance

From the results presented in Table 1, it is evident that the ratings from LLMs have significant monotonic correlation with the ground truth. This means that LLMs are capable of making zero-shot geospatial predictions on wide variety of topics in the form of ratings. This is exemplified by the fact that maps of the ground truth ranks and the ranks from GPT-4 Turbo are surprisingly similar and accurate as seen in Figure 3. Furthermore, the mean rank plots in Figure 1 demonstrate that there is significant agreement across models on objective topics. This confirms that geospatial datasets can be used to evaluate geographical knowledge. We can also see that using the expected value of the rating using logprobs consistently results in better performance for both GPT-4 Turbo and GPT-3.5 Turbo.

### 4.3. Common Biases on Objective Topics

By observing the mean rank error of the LLMs on population density, built up, and infant mortality shown in Figure 4, we find that there are systemic errors being made, though not severe. In particular, we can see that there are regions where LLMs commonly overestimate or underestimate the rank on these objective topics. This is indicated by the clusters of light red and blue points, where red points indicate regions where models overestimate the ranks of the loca-

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Task	GPT-4 Turbo	GPT-3.5 Turbo	Gemini Pro	Mixtral 8x7B	Llama 2 70B	GPT-4 Turbo w/ logprobs	GPT-3.5 Turbo w/ logprobs
Infant Mortality Rate	0.83	0.78	0.74	0.74	0.68	0.85	0.81
Population Density	0.76	0.73	0.63	0.70	0.55	0.84	0.79
Built-Up to Non-Built-Up Area Ratio	0.71	0.66	0.73	0.41	0.41	0.78	0.70
Nighttime Light Intensity	0.76	0.69	0.67	0.58	0.42	0.82	0.73
Average Temperature	0.82	0.70	0.59	0.71	0.42	0.86	0.89
Annual Precipitation	0.82	0.74	0.44	0.62	0.44	0.84	0.81

Table 1. Performance (Spearman’s  $\rho$ ) of all models on all objective topics with ground truth.

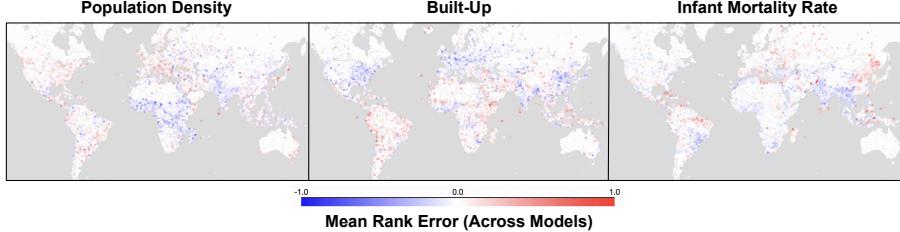


Figure 4. Common biases on important objective topics. This is shown with mean rank error where red points indicate common overestimates in rank and blue points indicate common underestimates.

tions and vice-versa for blue points. It is important to note, however, that the LLMs correctly rank a significant portion of the regions, as indicated by the numerous white points.

These clusters of errors can be interpreted in meaningful ways. For example, the LLMs consistently underestimate the rank of the locations in Africa and India for Population Density. This may mean that they are not aware of how many people actually live in those regions. It should be noted that these models can provide the populations of these areas when queried for the numbers, but these errors in ratings suggest the lack of a more intuitive understanding of the population density in those regions. Another example is how the LLMs consistently overestimate the rank of underdeveloped regions of the world for Built-Up to Non Built-Up Area Ratio, suggesting that the models do not understand the true difference in the geographic infrastructure between developed and developing regions of the world. Finally, we see that the models underestimate the ranks in areas such as south and south east Asia for Infant Mortality Rate, an indicator of socioeconomic conditions. These systemic errors in their predictions are bias.

#### 4.4. Common Biases on Sensitive Subjective Topics

To analyze performance or bias across multiple LLMs, one can plot the mean of the ranks across models. To do so, we first calculate the ranks from the ratings from each model individually. We then take the mean of those ranks across models to produce the mean ranks. This is particularly useful to show agreement across models. For example, if the mean rank at a particular location is high, this would indicate that most of the models agree that the location should rank highly. In the mean rank plots of Figure 1, we observe minimal agreement among LLMs on geographically

independent topics. This is evident from the absence of prominently red or green regions on the map, which sharply contrasts with the presence of such regions on objective topics. As one would expect, this suggests that the ratings on geographically independent topics are mostly random or constant and do not have significant meaning.

LLMs that are unbiased geographically would handle sensitive subjective topics in a manner similar to geographically independent topics, and we would not observe any prominent red or green regions. Unfortunately, this is not the case. In Figure 1, we see that there is significant agreement on the sensitive subjective topics as there are prominent regions of red and green. It is also clear that these regions are fairly consistent across sensitive topics as well, which is a clear indication of bias. The prominently red regions are located primarily in Africa, parts of the Middle East, and South Asia, while the prominently green regions are mainly in North America, Europe, Australia and parts of East Asia. In Table 2, we show that the ratings for these sensitive topics are correlated with infant survival rate (inverse of infant mortality rate) which is a proxy for socioeconomic conditions. More specifically, it is positively correlated with ratings from all LLMs and is significantly correlated with ratings from GPT-4 (w/ logprobs), GPT-3.5 Turbo (w/ and w/o logprobs), Gemini Pro, and Mixtral 8x7B. We find that ground truth Infant Mortality Rate is a better predictor for this bias than ground truth for Population Density, Built-Up to Non Built-Up Area Ratio, or Nighttime Light Intensity.

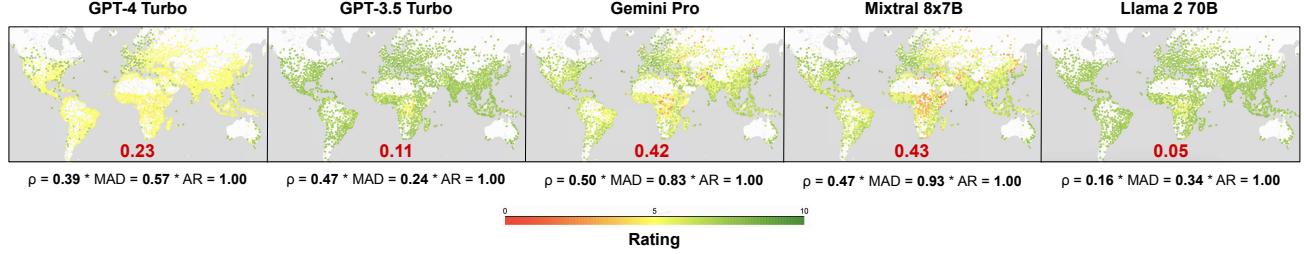
#### 4.5. Magnitude of Biases

**Changes in MAD of Ratings** We find that the mean absolute deviation (MAD) of ratings significantly decreases on topics that are sensitive. As seen in the right-most column

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Sensitive Topic	GPT-4 Turbo	GPT-3.5 Turbo	Gemini Pro	Mixtral 8x7B	Llama 2 70B	GPT-4 Turbo w/ logprobs	GPT-3.5 Turbo w/ logprobs
Average Likability of Residents	0.39	0.47	0.50	0.47	0.16	0.56	0.49
Average Attractiveness of Residents	0.11	0.50	0.50	0.44	0.27	0.35	0.56
Average Morality of Residents	0.10	0.45	0.63	0.55	0.17	0.55	0.52
Average Intelligence of Residents	0.22	0.62	0.67	0.65	0.18	0.59	0.70
Average Work Ethic of Residents	0.47	0.48	0.65	0.41	0.33	0.66	0.56

**Table 2.** Correlation (Spearman’s  $\rho$ ) of ratings on sensitive subjective topics with infant survival rate (inverse of our Infant Mortality Rate topic). This demonstrates clear bias towards areas with better socioeconomic conditions. These correlations are strongest among the topics we have ground truth for, including Population Density, Nighttime Light Intensity, and Built-Up to Non Built-Up Area Ratio.



**Figure 5.** Demonstration of bias scores for Average Likability of Residents. The anchoring bias distribution is socioeconomic conditions.

Sensitive Topic	GPT-4 Turbo	GPT-3.5 Turbo	Gemini Pro	Mixtral 8x7B	Llama 2 70B
Average Likability of Residents	0.23	0.11	0.42	0.43	0.05
Average Attractiveness of Residents	0.00	0.29	0.36	0.32	0.13
Average Morality of Residents	0.01	0.11	0.77	0.41	0.02
Average Intelligence of Residents	0.01	0.33	0.54	0.28	0.01
Average Work Ethic of Residents	0.23	0.13	0.63	0.16	0.23
Mean (Across Topics)	<b>0.10</b>	<b>0.19</b>	<b>0.54</b>	<b>0.32</b>	<b>0.09</b>

**Table 3.** Bias score  $B_y$  for all models across all sensitive subjective topics. The anchoring bias distribution  $y$  is socioeconomic conditions.

of Table 4, the MAD on sensitive topics is frequently almost 3 times smaller than the MAD on objective topics. This is a positive sign as it is not appropriate to give ratings that vary significantly on sensitive topics. Ideally, the ratings are more consistent on sensitive topics, suggesting that the models are aware of their controversial nature.

**Revealing Subtle Biases with Logprobs** As shown in Figure 6, when the MAD of ratings are very small (less than 0.02), the expected value of the ratings (using logprobs) reveals extremely subtle biases. For context, the maximum MAD for ratings from 0.0 to 9.9 would be 4.95. This is partially due to the fact that the ratings are continuous values when using the expected value (w/ logprobs), which is more precise than the discrete most probable ratings which can only have 2 significant figures. We even observe that the expected value of ratings can meaningfully change up to the 4th decimal place. This is why there is a higher correlation with socioeconomic conditions when using logprobs as seen in Table 2.

**Measuring Bias on Sensitive Subjective Topics** For the bias score on sensitive topics, we use infant survival rate as the anchoring bias distribution. This means that we expect the biases to be correlated with socioeconomic conditions.

The bias score is then the product of Spearman’s  $\rho$  with infant survival rate, MAD, and the answer rate. Figure 5 shows that the bias scores correspond to how biased the plots of ratings look. Looking at Table 3, one can see that the bias score varies significantly across LLMs. These scores suggest that GPT-4 Turbo and Llama 2 70B are the least biased, with the other models being significantly more biased.

## 5. Conclusion

In this work, we demonstrated that popular LLMs are susceptible to a new dimension of bias, termed geographic bias, where social groups are distinguished by location and bias is defined as systemic errors in geospatial predictions. In doing so, we also showed that LLMs are capable of making accurate zero-shot geospatial predictions, especially when using the expected value of the ratings (with logprobs). Unfortunately, the LLMs exhibit geographic bias across objective and subjective topics, particularly discriminating against areas with lower socioeconomic conditions. We hope that researchers pay attention to geographic bias when constructing training corpora and training LLMs so that the resulting models eschew harmful stereotypes in their applications and interactions with millions of users around the world.

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## A. Appendix

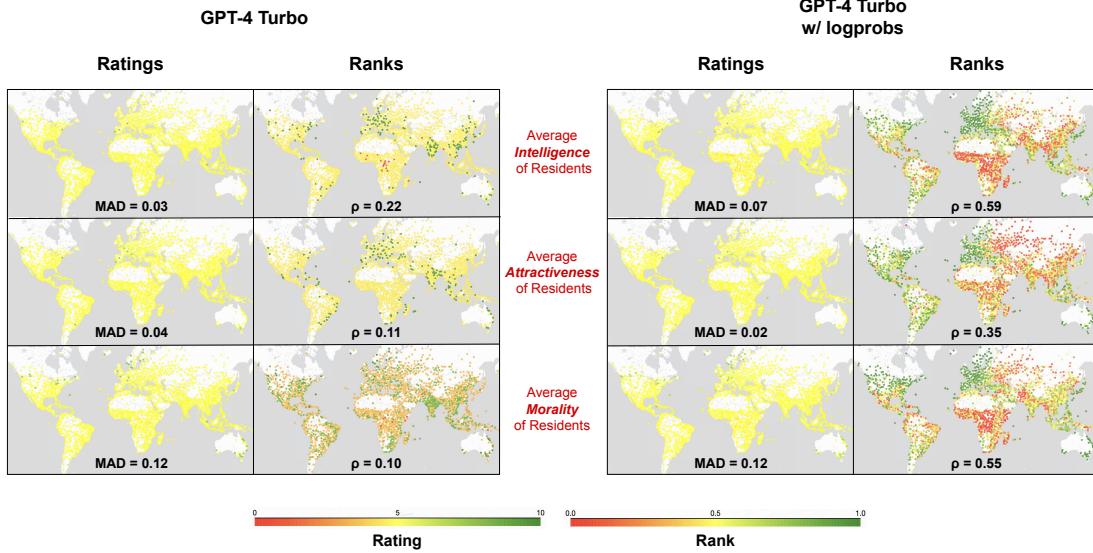


Figure 6. Demonstration of how biases can be revealed even when the ratings appear to be constant and unbiased. This is shown using the expected value of the rating (w/ logprobs shown on right) which allows for predictions that are continuous values.

Topic	GPT-4 Turbo	GPT-3.5 Turbo	Gemini Pro	Mixtral 8x7B	Llama 2 70B	GPT-4 Turbo w/ logprobs	GPT-3.5 Turbo w/ logprobs	Mean (Across Models)
Average Likability of Residents	0.57	0.24	0.83	0.93	0.34	0.50	0.32	<b>0.53</b>
Average Attractiveness of Residents	0.04	0.57	0.71	0.71	0.46	0.02	0.61	<b>0.45</b>
Average Morality of Residents	0.12	0.24	1.23	0.81	0.10	0.12	0.27	<b>0.41</b>
Average Intelligence of Residents	0.03	0.54	0.81	0.65	0.05	0.07	0.55	<b>0.40</b>
Average Work Ethic of Residents	0.49	0.26	0.96	0.39	0.70	0.37	0.29	<b>0.49</b>
Infant Mortality Rate	1.97	2.38	1.94	2.11	1.17	1.88	1.92	<b>1.91</b>
Population Density	2.22	1.53	1.66	1.88	0.87	2.01	1.23	<b>1.63</b>
Built-Up to Non-Built-Up Area Ratio	2.14	2.00	2.23	2.01	1.51	2.16	1.46	<b>1.93</b>
Nighttime Light Intensity	2.38	1.86	1.31	1.06	0.74	2.11	1.33	<b>1.54</b>
Average Temperature	1.16	0.43	0.77	0.91	0.31	0.93	0.47	<b>0.71</b>
Annual Precipitation	1.27	0.89	1.70	1.84	0.57	1.20	0.83	<b>1.19</b>

Table 4. Mean absolute deviation (MAD) of ratings on sensitive subjective topics and objective topics across all models.

Topic	GPT-4 Turbo	GPT-3.5 Turbo	Gemini Pro	Mixtral 8x7B	Llama 2 70B	GPT-4 Turbo w/ logprobs	GPT-3.5 Turbo w/ logprobs
Average Likability of Residents	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Average Attractiveness of Residents	0.98	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.98	1.00
Average Morality of Residents	0.98	1.00	1.00	0.92	1.00	0.98	1.00
Average Intelligence of Residents	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.67	1.00	0.99	1.00
Average Work Ethic of Residents	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00
Infant Mortality Rate	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Population Density	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Built-Up to Non Built-Up Area Ratio	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Nighttime Light Intensity	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00
Average Temperature	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Annual Precipitation	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99

Table 5. Answer rate on sensitive subjective topics and objective topics.