

More Canadian than American: A Five-Model Audit of US vs. Canadian Value Defaults in Language Models

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Abstract

Language models are widely assumed to default to American values. We test that assumption by comparing five instruction-tuned models’ answers against the survey-measured opinions of real United States and Canadian respondents, and find the opposite: every model we tested aligns more often with Canadian than American public opinion. Each model answered ten World Values Survey items under three framings (no persona, an explicit US persona, an explicit Canada persona). Across 112 multiple-choice comparisons, 83 are statistically significant, and 57 of those (69%) place the model closer to the Canadian distribution than the American one. This lean appears in every model, survives a false-discovery-rate correction, and grows stronger on the most reliable cells. Persona framing moves the scaled-item answers in eight of nine testable cases, confirming it as a real but item-dependent lever. We also document a willingness-to-answer gap that tracks the individual model rather than open-versus-closed access: Claude Opus 4.8 refuses every bare zero-shot opinion we pose, GPT-4o refuses some, and Grok 4.3 answers as readily as the two open-weight models.

1 Introduction

A recurring concern about large language models is that they encode a default cultural and political viewpoint anchored in the United States, the country that dominates their English-language training data and, for many widely-used models, their alignment and reinforcement-learning process [1]. If true, this would matter for any application that treats a language model’s zero-shot answer as a neutral or globally representative one, and it motivates a growing line of work asking whether persona prompting (asking a model to answer *as* a member of a given country or group) can correct for this default rather than merely re-describing it [2, 3, 4].

Canada offers a useful, under-examined test case for this question. It is culturally and linguistically close to the United States, English-speaking, and a similarly high-income democracy, which makes it a conservative test of an American-default hypothesis: if a US-centric default appears even against a culturally adjacent comparison country, that is stronger evidence of the effect than a contrast against a more distant country. The question also has a practical dimension specific to Canada. Canadian media and broadcasting policy has long included explicit domestic-content requirements (Canadian content, or CanCon, rules enforced by the Canadian Radio-television and Telecommunications Commission under the Broadcasting Act, recently extended to streaming services) motivated by a concern that unregulated exposure to a much larger neighboring media market could displace domestic cultural production [5]. If large language models trained predominantly

on American-dominated data encode a systematic US-centric default, deploying them in Canadian contexts (education, public services, content moderation, or media production) could introduce a comparable displacement channel that current content-quota policy was not designed to address. We do not test any deployment scenario directly, and finding a lean in either direction would not by itself establish that AI systems pose this kind of policy risk, but this is part of what motivates checking whether a US-centric default exists at the level of individual model outputs in the first place. Motivated by prior work suggesting vanilla LLM survey answers align most closely with the United States among Western, English-speaking countries [6], we set out to test whether this holds for a direct US-Canada comparison, and whether explicit country-persona prompting moves a model toward the intended country’s actual survey-measured opinion distribution or leaves it largely unchanged.

We built our test on the World Values Survey (WVS) Wave 7 [7], using ten items spanning generalized trust, religiosity, gender attitudes, work-related attitudes, confidence in government, perceived corruption, immigration attitudes, national pride, and views on individual versus state responsibility. For each item we compare a target model’s answer distribution, elicited under three framings, against the WVS’s own survey-weighted distribution of United States and Canadian respondents on that exact item. We test five instruction-tuned models: two widely used open-weight models (Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct [8], Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct [9]) and three closed frontier assistants (GPT-4o [10], Claude Opus 4.8 [11], and Grok 4.3 [12]), spanning three developers, to see whether any US-default pattern is specific to one model family, one training regime, or one release generation.

The result we did not expect, given the motivating hypothesis, is the headline finding of this paper: none of the five models shows the predicted uniform lean toward the United States distribution. If anything, all five land closer to the Canadian distribution more often, including in the majority of comparisons where the difference reaches statistical significance. We report this as the central, hypothesis-defying finding of the audit, not as a confirmation of the concern that motivated the project, and we are careful throughout to state every comparison as a claim about a model’s answer distribution relative to WVS respondents’ distribution in each country, not as a claim about what any generic “American” or “Canadian” person believes; both populations are heterogeneous, and the two countries are culturally closer to each other than most cross-national comparisons in this literature.

Our contributions are:

1. A ten-item, three-condition, five-model audit design comparing LLM answer distributions against WVS-weighted US and Canada baselines, using a significance test (bootstrap resampling for categorical items, ANOVA for scaled items) rather than point estimates alone (§3, §4).
2. Evidence against a uniform US-default account: across five models and 112 categorical comparisons, a significant Canada-ward lean is more common than a significant US-ward lean, contradicting the hypothesis that motivated this audit, and this pattern is unchanged after a false-discovery-rate correction for running 121 tests jointly (§5).
3. A characterization of persona-steering as real but item-dependent: persona framing significantly shifts the scaled-item answer distribution for eight of nine testable model-item pairs (one pair produces a mathematically degenerate test and is excluded from this count), with one clear counterexample of persona inertia (§5).

4. A documented willingness-to-answer gap that is model-specific, not a closed-versus-open property: one closed frontier model (Claude Opus 4.8) refuses to state a zero-shot personal opinion on every one of the three items we probed it with before dropping that condition, a second closed model (GPT-4o) shows a weaker version of the same explicit-refusal pattern, a third closed model (Grok 4.3) shows no such gap and answers zero-shot as readily as the open-weight models, and one open-weight model shows a differently-shaped zero-shot reliability problem (hedging rather than refusal) on several items, which together complicate any cross-model bias comparison that assumes uniform compliance (§5, §7).

2 Related Work

LLMs as survey respondents and simulated populations. A growing literature asks whether LLMs can stand in for human survey respondents, using instruments such as GlobalOpinionQA/OpinionQA (Pew-derived), Hofstede’s VSM13, or the European Social Survey as the human comparison [1, 13, 14, 15]. Li et al. [16] fine-tune directly on WVS Wave 7, the same wave we use, across 50 questions. Separately, Kim and Lee [6] cite a prior finding (Atari et al., 2023) that vanilla LLM answers to WVS items correlate most closely with WEIRD (Western, Educated, Industrialized, Rich, Democratic) countries and, among those, most closely with the United States specifically – close to a direct precedent for the hypothesis this paper tests, though not previously tested against Canada specifically. Hu et al. [17] assemble a 20-dataset, 130-plus-country harmonized benchmark for exactly this simulate-a-population task and is the closest methodological analogue to our design in scale, though not in country pair.

Persona-steering and its limits. A consistent finding across this literature is that persona prompting is a weaker lever than one might expect. Nationality personas produced no statistically significant shift in one Political Compass Test study [18]; Llama models showed near-total resistance to persona prompting across every tested dimension in another [19]; persona conditioning has been shown to *worsen* alignment with the intended target country rather than improve it [14]; and demographic-only personas tend to collapse toward a generic, low-confidence default rather than express genuine subpopulation heterogeneity [4, 3]. Li et al. [16] similarly report that prompt-engineering and persona-based cultural steering is not effective, particularly for low-resource cultures, and Kovač et al. [2] find that a model’s expressed values can drift toward a neutral, non-persona-specific profile over repeated interaction rather than staying anchored to the assigned persona, which is one reason we use repeated sampling and report the full empirical distribution for our scaled items rather than a single completion (§3). This body of work argues for treating persona inertia as a live, expected outcome rather than a surprising null result, which shaped how we frame our own persona-effect analysis in §5.

Elicitation method as a validity threat. Several papers warn that the choice of elicitation method is itself a major methodological risk. Hu et al. [17] find that first-token log-probability elicitation is markedly worse-calibrated than verbalized, prompted-percentage elicitation specifically for instruction-tuned models, and Wright et al. [18] independently report that closed-form and open-ended answers from the same model and persona can disagree up to 90% of the time, with the disagreement increasing once a persona is added. Bladon and Bent [20] show that tokenizer and chat-template artifacts can silently invert the measured sign of a bias when scoring is done naively over a single answer token, and separately argue that geopolitical bias in LLMs is installed during post-training rather than inherited from pretraining data, with the language of the prompt amplifying

the effect. These findings motivated our own elicitation design (§3) and directly foreshadow the elicitation-method gap we report between models with and without accessible log-probabilities (§7).

Statistical rigor for condition effects. Prompt phrasing alone, with no semantic content change, has been shown to produce statistically significant shifts in aggregate survey-style scores, to the point that control fine-tuning shifts scores about as much as targeted fine-tuning in one study [21]. This and related work supply directly reusable significance-testing toolkits for a zero-shot-versus-persona comparison, including two-way ANOVA with Games-Howell post-hoc tests [21], OLS regression on condition dummies with a no-persona intercept [18], and a chi-squared/CLT/Wasserstein triple test paired with stratified bootstrap confidence intervals [22]. Lafargue et al. [22] also report that LLMs default to a “North America” framing absent explicit contrary cues, which is consistent with, though not a direct test of, a US/Canada-specific default, since that paper’s category does not distinguish the two countries within it. Huang et al. [13] propose an “effective human sample size” framing, expressing a model’s simulated answer as being informationally worth some calibrated number of real respondents, which we adopt conceptually when discussing how much weight our own point estimates deserve (§6).

Is the US-Canada pair a small-effect comparison? Two findings bear directly on whether the United States and Canada should be expected to show a detectable gap at all. Ryan et al. [1] find that alignment-induced US-centric bias is significant against Jordan, China, and Nigeria, but not against Germany or Australia, both culturally and economically Western countries as Canada is, suggesting culturally proximate country pairs may simply show smaller effects. Separately, Kim et al. [23] find that US-trained political-ideology representations transfer unusually well to Canada specifically (Spearman $\rho = 0.883$), one of several non-US countries, after New Zealand and Australia, showing unusually strong transfer, which could mean either that a genuine gap is easily overwritten by a persona, or that little separates the two countries’ representations to begin with. Both findings shaped our expectation, prior to running the audit, that any effect we found might be small, item-dependent, or absent for some items – an expectation partially, but not uniformly, borne out by our results (§5).

Adjacent benchmarks and interventions. Our design sits alongside, but is methodologically distinct from, several related efforts. Chiu et al. [24] and Hashmat et al. [25] build cultural-knowledge and culturally-adapted question-answering benchmarks, which test factual or trivia-style cultural competence rather than the opinion-survey-style, persona-conditioned comparison we run here. Agiza et al. [26] shows that fine-tuning, rather than prompting, can inject a measurable political or economic bias into a model, a different intervention axis than our audit-only, no-training design; and Kamruzzaman and Kim [27] finds that direct, explicit favorability questions produce ceiling and positivity artifacts that an indirect, aggregative elicitation method avoids, one of the considerations behind our own choice of elicitation method (§3).

3 Method

We compare each target model’s induced answer distribution on ten World Values Survey items against the WVS’s own survey-weighted distribution of United States and Canadian respondents on the identical item, under three framings: no persona (zero-shot), an explicit United States persona, and an explicit Canada persona. The persona prompt asks the model to answer as an average citizen of the named country based on that country’s cultural background and values; the underlying survey question is otherwise presented verbatim from the WVS questionnaire in every

condition.

Items. Three items anchor the design: generalized interpersonal trust, importance of religion, and individual-versus-state responsibility (a 1-10 scale). Seven additional items were added after the initial three-item phase (§4) to broaden concept coverage: gender and political leadership, gender and work fulfillment, work ethic, confidence in government, perceived corruption (a second 1-10-scale item), perceived impact of immigration, and national pride. Two additional candidate items were considered and dropped after we found the United States and Canada survey modules used different, non-comparable response-code ranges for them, which would have made any distributional comparison an artifact of instrument mismatch rather than a genuine difference in measured opinion.

Elicitation. For the eight categorical (multiple-choice) items, three of the five models (Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct, Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct, GPT-4o) expose per-token log-probabilities, so we take the model’s completion probability mass restricted to the valid answer choices as its answer distribution (Approach A). The other two, Claude Opus 4.8 and Grok 4.3, expose no usable log-probabilities through their APIs (Claude returns none at all; Grok’s serving provider rejects the log-probability request outright), so for both of these we instead sample the model’s free-text completion twenty times at temperature 1.0 and build an empirical frequency distribution over parsed answer choices (Approach B). For the two 1-10 scaled items, every model uses the same repeated free-generation sampling procedure (twenty draws per cell), since a scaled answer is not a single discrete token whose log-probability can be read off directly. We report a compliance measure for every cell (log-probability mass on valid answers, or parseable-response fraction for sampled cells) as a reliability gate, following a prior warning that logprob-based elicitation should not be trusted without a compliance pre-check, since naive single-token scoring can silently invert the measured sign of a result [20]; a related toolkit similarly treats parseable-response failure as a gating concern [22].

Human baselines. For each item and country we compute the WVS survey-weight adjusted percentage distribution (categorical items) or weighted mean and standard deviation (scaled items) over valid respondents, following the WVS’s own documented practice of excluding don’t-know, refused, and not-applicable codes before weighting [7].

4 Experimental Setup

Data. We use World Values Survey Wave 7 (2017-2022), Cross-National Data-Set, version 6.0 [7], restricted to the United States and Canada respondent subsets (2,596 and 4,018 raw rows respectively, out of 97,220 rows across 66 countries and territories in the full wave). Per-item valid-respondent counts range from 2,519 to 2,587 for the United States and are 3,927 or 4,018 for Canada after excluding WVS’s own missing/don’t-know/not-applicable codes. Canada has no WVS-coded missing, don’t-know, or refused responses on any item we use; one item (national pride) additionally excludes a small skip-code share in both countries (respondents who are not citizens of their country of residence), which accounts for Canada’s 3,927 count and the low end (2,519) of the United States’ valid-respondent range above. On the remaining nine items the United States has 0.3-0.8% missingness; on the national-pride item the same skip-code exclusion gives the United States a shortfall of about 3%. All percentages and means are computed with WVS’s own within-country-normalized survey weight.

Models. Two open-weight instruction-tuned models (Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct, Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct) were run first, via the Hugging Face Inference API with an explicitly pinned backing provider per

model (rather than the default auto-router, which we found could silently drop log-probability output for either model). Three closed frontier assistants (GPT-4o, Claude Opus 4.8, and Grok 4.3) were run afterward via OpenRouter as a second phase, motivated by the same audit question at a different capability and training tier, and chosen to span three different frontier developers (OpenAI, Anthropic, xAI).

Grid size and an exclusion. The two open-weight models were each run on the full grid of three conditions by ten items, 60 cells combined. GPT-4o and Grok 4.3 were likewise each run on the full three-by-ten grid (30 cells each). Claude Opus 4.8’s zero-shot condition was excluded from the full run after a smoke test: across three items and 50 total sampled completions, Claude Opus 4.8 returned zero valid, parseable answers under the zero-shot framing, consistently producing text explicitly declining to state a personal opinion (for example, stating it does not have personal opinions, confidence levels, or political views to report, and so cannot authentically pick one). We therefore ran only its two persona conditions across all ten items (20 cells) and report the zero-shot refusal itself as a finding (§5) rather than forcing compliance with a stronger instruction, which would have changed what the zero-shot condition measures for that model relative to the other four. In total we collected 140 model-condition-item cells across the five models.

Significance testing. For the eight categorical items, three of the five models (Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct, Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct, GPT-4o) give an exact probability distribution rather than a sample, so for these models the only sampling uncertainty is on the human side: WVS measured a finite number of respondents. Claude Opus 4.8’s and Grok 4.3’s categorical answers are themselves repeated-sample estimates (§3), which adds a model-side sampling uncertainty this test does not separately quantify; we treat those two models’ significance results as directional for that reason (§7). We bootstrap-resample (2,000 iterations, weighted by the WVS survey weight) each country’s raw respondents to obtain a 95% confidence interval on the difference between the model’s distance to the Canadian distribution and its distance to the United States distribution (both measured by total variation distance), and call a cell’s “closer to Canada” or “closer to the United States” result statistically significant only when that interval excludes zero. For the two scaled items, we have twenty real repeated samples per condition, so we run a one-way ANOVA (cross-checked with the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test) across each model’s available conditions’ twenty samples each (three conditions for Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct, Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct, GPT-4o, and Grok 4.3; two for Claude Opus 4.8, whose zero-shot condition was excluded per above), per model and item, to test whether persona framing significantly shifts the model’s scaled answer, and one-sample *t*-tests of each condition’s samples against each country’s WVS-estimated baseline mean.

5 Results

5.1 The motivating US-default hypothesis does not hold in the predicted direction

Table 1 summarizes, per model, how often each model’s categorical answer distribution lands closer to the Canadian versus the United States distribution, and how often that difference is statistically significant by the bootstrap test in §4. Across all five models and 112 categorical comparisons, 83 (74.1%) reach statistical significance; of those 83, 57 (68.7%) favor the Canadian distribution and 26 (31.3%) favor the United States distribution. Every model we test shows more significant Canada-favoring cells than United-States-favoring cells. This is the opposite of the pattern the motivating hypothesis predicted, and it appears in both of the independently-trained open-weight models as well as, to varying degrees, in all three closed frontier assistants (§7 discusses the model,

Table 1: Categorical items only (8 of 10 items). Counts are of cells (model $\times$ condition $\times$ item), each classified by whether the model’s answer distribution is statistically significantly closer to the Canadian (CA) or United States (US) distribution at the 95% bootstrap-CI level, or not significantly closer to either. Claude Opus 4.8 has 16 cells (two persona conditions only; see §4).

Model	Cells	Sig. closer to CA	Sig. closer to US	Not significant
Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct	24	15	6	3
Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct	24	12	5	7
GPT-4o	24	11	7	6
Claude Opus 4.8	16	7	4	5
Grok 4.3	24	12	4	8
Combined	112	57	26	29

access-method, and elicitation-method differences that covary across these five models and why we do not treat this as a fully controlled five-way ablation). It at least argues against explaining the open-weight pattern away as an artifact of one specific training pipeline, since Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct and Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct are trained independently and show a comparably strong lean; notably, Grok 4.3 shows the highest ratio of significant Canada- to United-States-favoring cells of any model (12 to 4, 3:1), so the frontier tier does not uniformly show a weaker version of the pattern, and the developer producing the model does not predict its strength.

Figure 1 summarizes this lean across every comparison at once, on a single US-Canada spectrum. For each of the 140 categorical and scaled cells (both item types combine cleanly here, since the classification is simply which country’s distribution the model’s answer is closer to, not a shared distance unit), we classify the cell as closer to the US distribution or closer to Canada’s, with no significance filtering, and plot each model’s share on each side. Every model lands on the Canada side of the 50% midpoint by a clear margin: Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct and Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct are closer to Canada on 70% of cells, Grok 4.3 on 67%, and GPT-4o and Claude Opus 4.8 on 60%. This is the same directional pattern as Table 1’s significance-filtered counts, now shown as a share of every comparison we ran rather than only the statistically significant subset, and it is the clearest single picture of which models lean most toward Canada (Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct, Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct) versus least (GPT-4o, Claude Opus 4.8), with Grok 4.3 in between, while all still lean that way on balance.

None of the 112 categorical bootstrap tests or 9 non-degenerate ordinal ANOVA tests reported in this paper is corrected for running many tests at a nominal $\alpha = 0.05$, so we re-derived an exact two-tailed p -value for every categorical cell from its bootstrap diff distribution and applied Benjamini-Hochberg false-discovery-rate correction (target $q = 0.05$) across all 121 testable tests jointly (excluding the one mathematically degenerate ordinal pair discussed below, which has no interpretable p -value to correct). The result is unchanged: the same 83 of 112 categorical cells and 8 of 9 testable ordinal pairs remain significant after correction (the Benjamini-Hochberg cutoff falls at $p = 0.034$, comfortably inside the block of small p -values the raw significant cells already occupy). We report this as a robustness check, not as license to treat 74.1% or 68.7% as more precise than the underlying counts warrant: these cells are not 112 independent trials (cells sharing an item share the identical bootstrapped human null distribution, and cells sharing a model share that model’s own answer tendencies), so the effective sample size behind these percentages is closer to the 8-item,

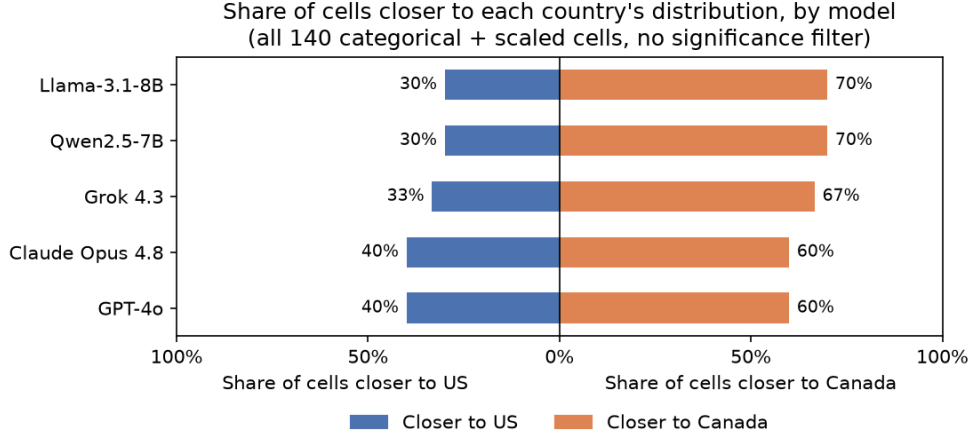


Figure 1: Share of all 140 categorical and scaled cells closer to the US versus Canada distribution, by model, no significance filter. Every model leans toward Canada on a majority of comparisons, with Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct and Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct leaning most strongly (70%), Grok 4.3 next (67%), and GPT-4o and Claude Opus 4.8 least strongly (60%).

5-model structure than to 112, and we treat the percentages as descriptive summaries of a real, FDR-robust pattern rather than as a precisely-calibrated rate. As a further sensitivity check, since several cells rest on low compliance (§7), we recomputed the significance rate restricted to the 97 of 112 cells at or above the 0.5 compliance gate: 75 of these (77.3%) are significant, slightly higher than the 74.1% across all cells, and the Canada-favoring share of significant cells is if anything larger among reliable cells (54 CA versus 21 US, a ratio of about 2.6:1, versus about 2.2:1 across all cells). Restricting to the more reliable subset of our data strengthens rather than weakens the headline pattern.

The pattern is not uniform across items, however. National pride and confidence in government show a strong, consistent Canada-favoring signal in the two open-weight models (6 of 6 and 5 of 6 tested cells significant and Canada-favoring, respectively), while gender-and-work-fulfillment attitudes show no significant difference in any of the six cells tested for those two models, consistent with the two countries' underlying survey distributions being nearly identical on that item to begin with. Religion shows the largest single-cell gap in the entire open-weight grid (Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct, zero-shot), and it is one of the few cells that favors the United States distribution rather than Canada's, which is a useful reminder that the largest human-population gap between the two countries on a given item does not reliably predict which direction, if any, a model's default answer will lean. It is also not uniform across models: GPT-4o's lean is noticeably weaker than the two open-weight models' (7 significant United-States cells against 11 significant Canada cells, a ratio of about 1.6:1, versus roughly 2.5:1 for Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct and 2.4:1 for Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct), so the frontier models replicate the direction of the open-weight pattern more than its strength, which is at least as consistent with two distinct, partially-overlapping effects as with one uniform phenomenon.

Grouping the ten items into seven thematic clusters (Figure 2) shows the item-level heterogeneity just discussed is not scattered at random: it clusters by theme. Government and institutions (confidence in government, perceived corruption) shows the strongest and most consistent Canada-

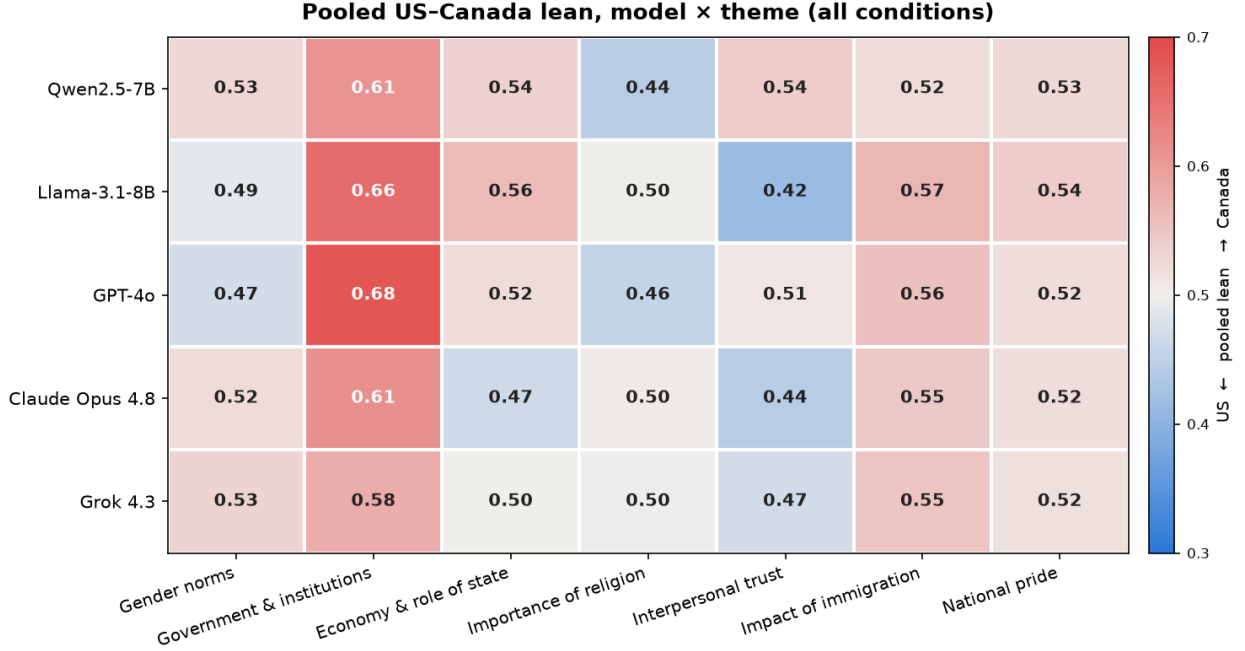


Figure 2: Pooled US-Canada lean score (same 0-1 metric as Figure 1, mean across items, conditions, and, where a theme groups more than one item, across items within the theme) by model and question theme. Red indicates a Canada-ward lean, blue a US-ward lean; white is equidistant (0.5).

lean of any theme for every model (0.58-0.68, all five models), and immigration and national pride are consistently, if more modestly, Canada-leaning as well (0.52-0.57, all five models). Interpersonal trust and importance of religion are the two themes where the pattern is weakest or reverses: Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct (0.42), Claude Opus 4.8 (0.44), and Grok 4.3 (0.47) all lean toward the United States on interpersonal trust specifically, and every model sits within a hair of the 0.50 equidistant line on religion (0.44-0.51), with none leaning Canada-ward by any meaningful margin. Gender norms and the economy/role-of-state theme fall in between, close to equidistant for most models. This gives the headline finding a more specific shape than “models lean toward Canada”: the lean is concentrated in attitudes toward institutions and national identity, and is weak, absent, or reversed for interpersonal trust and religion.

Pooling across conditions can itself hide structure, so Figure 3 disaggregates each per-theme mean in Figure 2 down to the individual model-item-condition cell, with each model’s pooled mean retained as a diamond for reference. Two features stand out that the pooled heatmap cannot show. First, the strong Government-and-institutions Canada-lean holds up within every condition individually—zero-shot, US-persona, and CA-persona alike—rather than being an artifact of averaging across them. Second, the US-ward interpersonal-trust lean for Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct and Claude Opus 4.8 is driven substantially by their persona-conditioned cells rather than holding uniformly across conditions, a caution against reading any single pooled cell as a condition-independent property of the model.

A finding not previously reported at the elicitation-method level: on four of Claude Opus 4.8’s eight categorical items (trust, gender and political leadership, confidence in government, and

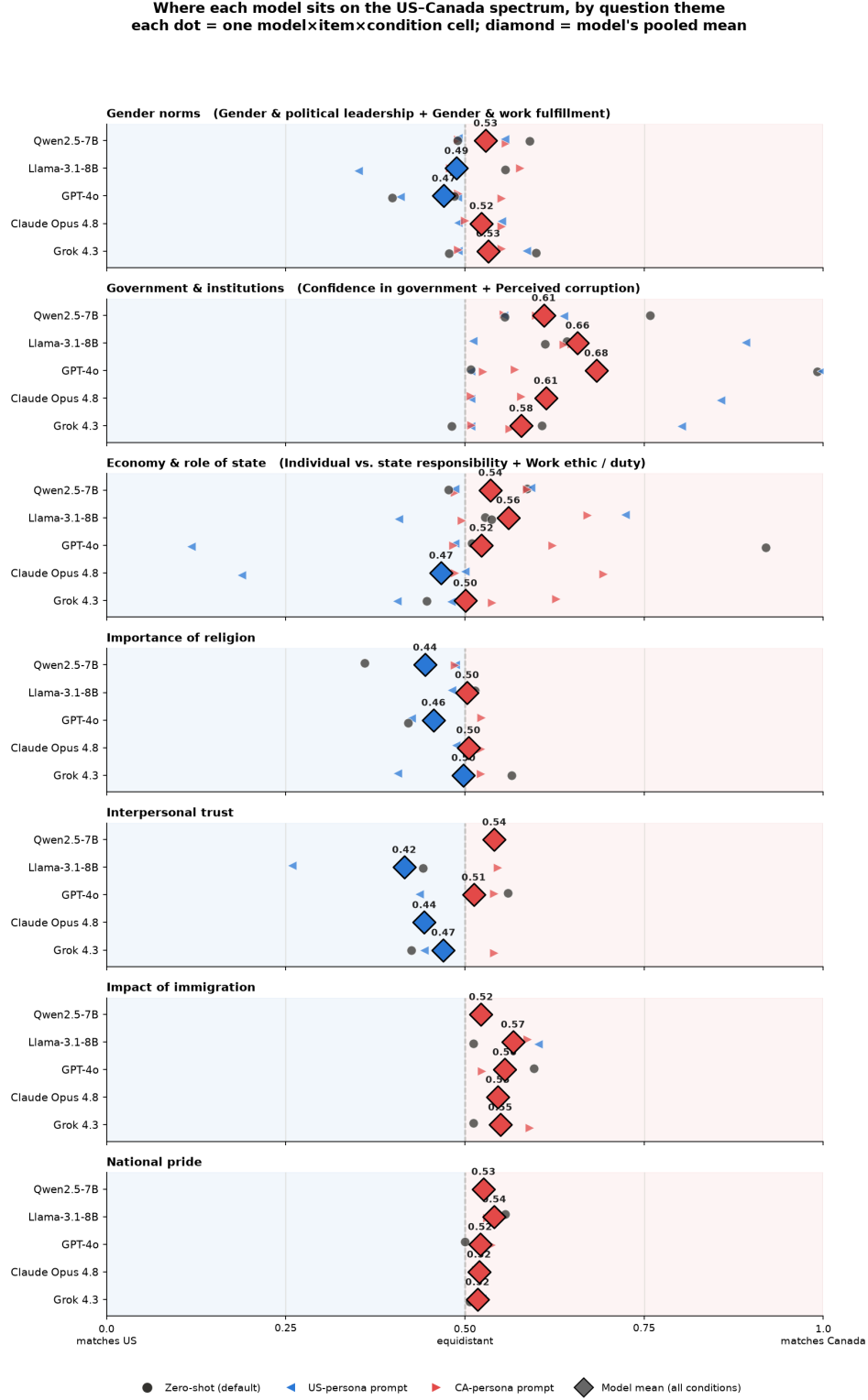


Figure 3: Per-cell US-Canada position score, faceted by question theme, with individual cells shown by condition (circle: zero-shot; left-pointing triangle: US-persona; right-pointing triangle: CA-persona) and each model's pooled mean marked as a diamond. Same 0-1 metric as Figures 1 and 2.

immigration attitudes), its answer distribution collapses to the identical near-one-hot response under both the United States and the Canada persona, despite the two conditions being elicited from independent sampling runs with different compliance rates and different raw completions each time. We confirmed this is reproducible, not a single-draw coincidence: a second, fully independent 20-sample replicate of all eight cells (both persona conditions on all four items) reproduced the identical one-hot answer in every case. This is Claude Opus 4.8’s own categorical-item analogue of Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct’s ordinal persona inertia (§5 below): on these four items, persona framing changes what the model writes but not which answer it selects.

5.2 Persona framing shifts scaled-item answers in most, but not all, cases

Table 2 reports the persona-effect ANOVA for the two 1-10 scaled items (individual-versus-state responsibility, perceived corruption) across all five models. One of the ten model-item pairs, Claude Opus 4.8 on perceived corruption, produces a mathematically degenerate test (both persona conditions returned twenty identical sampled values each, so the F-statistic is formally undefined rather than merely large) and we exclude it from the count below rather than treat “ $p < 0.001$ ” as interpretable in the ordinary sense for that cell. Of the remaining nine testable pairs, eight show a statistically significant shift in the scaled answer across conditions ($p < 0.05$); the one exception is Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct on individual-versus-state responsibility ($F = 0.589$, $p = 0.558$), which we read as a genuine case of persona inertia rather than a null result driven by low statistical power, since the same model shows a highly significant persona effect on the other scaled item (perceived corruption, $p < 0.001$). Grok 4.3, at the other extreme from Qwen’s inertia, shows the largest and most directionally clean persona response of any model, with both of its scaled-item ANOVAs highly significant ($F = 326.9$ and $F = 90.1$, both $p < 0.001$) on full 20-sample conditions. Three of the eight significant pairs (Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct’s and GPT-4o’s perceived-corruption pairs, and GPT-4o’s state-responsibility pair) rest partly on a zero-shot condition with fewer than 20 valid samples (marked [†] in Table 2) and should be read with correspondingly reduced confidence in that one input group, though the ANOVA itself remains well-defined. Where the effect is significant, its direction generally matches the direction one would predict from the true US/Canada baseline gap, which is consistent with genuine distributional steering but does not rule out the model instead retrieving a well-known declarative fact about the two countries (for example, that Canada is widely described as less corrupt than the United States) and reciting it under the persona instruction’s demand characteristics rather than simulating the underlying population’s belief distribution; we cannot distinguish these two mechanisms with the present design. For example, Grok 4.3’s mean answer on perceived corruption moves from 6.50 under a United States persona to 3.10 under a Canada persona, a 3.4-point swing on a 10-point scale, the largest persona effect of any model-item pair we measure, marginally exceeding GPT-4o’s 3.3-point swing (6.85 to 3.55) on the same item.

We note a calibration caveat that applies to most, though not all, of the scaled-item grid: in 22 of the 28 model-condition cells across all phases, the sample mean is statistically significantly different from *both* the United States and Canada population means (one-sample t -test, $p < 0.05$ against both), so a “closer to Canada” result should be read as a relative statement, not as evidence that the model reproduces either country’s true population mean. These one-sample t -tests, unlike the categorical bootstrap in §4, compare each condition’s 20 samples against a fixed point value for the country’s baseline mean, with no propagated standard error on that baseline; given the underlying human samples are large (2,500-4,000 respondents per country), we expect this to matter little in practice, but we have not quantified it, and the two test families are not treated with identical

Table 2: Persona-effect ANOVA, scaled items (1-10 scale). Claude Opus 4.8 has no zero-shot condition (§4), so its test compares only the two persona conditions. †: mean rests on fewer than 20 valid samples (Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct’s and GPT-4o’s zero-shot corruption cells have only 7/20 parseable, all identical for Llama; GPT-4o’s zero-shot state-responsibility cell has 12/20). *: all 20 samples for this condition are identical, a zero-variance cell (§7).

Model	Item	Zero-shot / US-p. / CA-p. mean	F	p
Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct	State responsibility	6.95 / 6.85 / 6.95	0.589	0.558
Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct	Corruption	6.35 / 5.45 / 4.70	13.03	< 0.001
Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct	State responsibility	5.25 / 5.90 / 6.10	10.30	< 0.001
Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct	Corruption	5.00 [†] / 6.70 / 5.45	14.94	< 0.001
GPT-4o	State responsibility	5.58 [†] / 5.00* / 6.45	32.75	< 0.001
GPT-4o	Corruption	6.86 [†] / 6.85 / 3.55	191.94	< 0.001
Claude Opus 4.8	State responsibility	n/a / 4.75 / 6.00*	158.33	< 0.001
Claude Opus 4.8	Corruption	n/a / 7.00* / 4.00*	undefined*	(degenerate)
Grok 4.3	State responsibility	2.45 / 3.65 / 6.40	326.92	< 0.001
Grok 4.3	Corruption	4.90 / 6.50 / 3.10	90.12	< 0.001

rigor on this point. We also flag, marked with * in Table 2, that several scaled-item cells returned identical values across all twenty samples despite temperature-1.0 sampling, which produces a formally undefined or infinite t -statistic; these are concentrated in two of the three frontier models (GPT-4o and Claude Opus 4.8), but not exclusive to them (Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct’s zero-shot corruption cell shows the same degeneracy, marked † in Table 2; Grok 4.3, by contrast, produced non-degenerate variance on all six of its scaled-item cells). We treat both patterns as a genuine finding about low within-cell variance in these specific free-generation cells rather than as evidence of an unusually precise effect.

5.3 Willingness to answer zero-shot is model-specific, not a closed-versus-open property

The most consistent qualitative difference we observe across models is not about which country a model’s answers lean toward, but whether the model is willing to answer a bare, no-persona opinion question at all — and, importantly, this difference cuts across the open/closed divide rather than along it. Across a 50-completion smoke test spanning three items, Claude Opus 4.8 returned zero valid, parseable answers under the zero-shot condition, in every case producing text that explicitly declines to state a personal opinion. GPT-4o shows the same qualitative behavior at a substantially lower rate: its mean zero-shot compliance across all ten items was 0.506, driven down by a small number of near-total refusals on specific items (as low as 0% on one item), using the same characteristic language (explicitly stating it does not have personal views or opinions, as an AI). The third closed frontier model, Grok 4.3, shows no such gap at all: its zero-shot compliance is at or near 1.0 on every one of the ten items (the lowest is 0.90), indistinguishable from the two open-weight models on compliant items and higher than either on the specific items where the open-weight models hedge. Neither open-weight model shows the explicit-refusal pattern (though one, Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct, has a differently-shaped zero-shot reliability problem, §7). We read this as a graded, model-specific difference in how strongly a given model’s assistant training discourages it from asserting a first-person opinion with no persona to speak from — not a property of being

Persona framing shifts scaled-item answers toward the correct country, but rarely into the human range

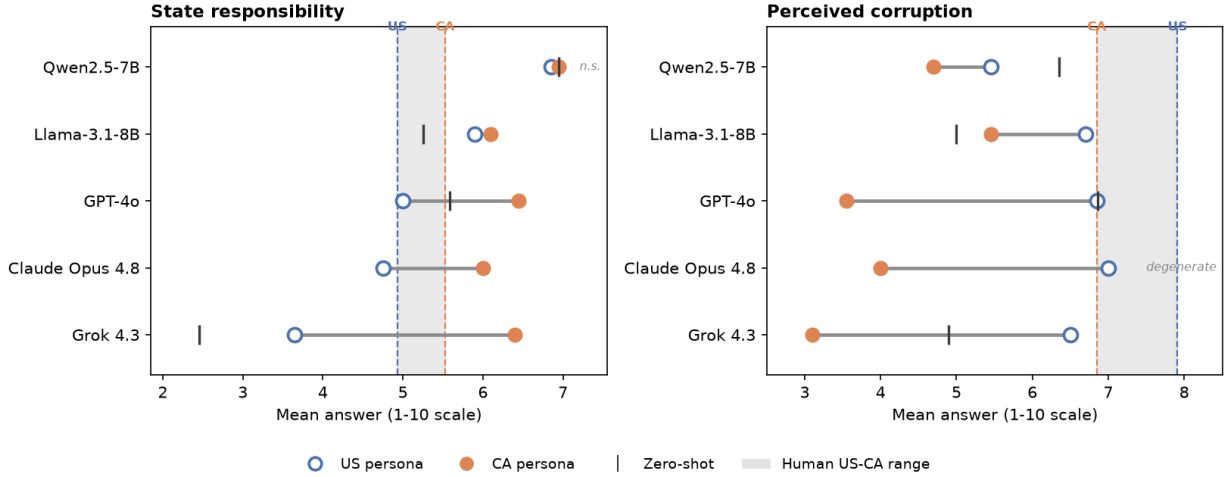


Figure 4: Persona-framing effect on the two scaled items. Each dumbbell connects a model’s mean answer under the US-persona prompt (open circle) to its mean under the CA-persona prompt (filled circle); the vertical tick marks the zero-shot mean where one exists. Dashed lines mark the United States and Canada population means, and the shaded band is the human US-CA range between them. Claude Opus 4.8 has no zero-shot condition (§4); *n.s.* marks the one non-significant persona shift and *degenerate* the one formally undefined test (Table 2).

closed, frontier, or assistant-tuned per se, since the three closed frontier assistants we test span the full range from total zero-shot refusal (Claude Opus 4.8) to none at all (Grok 4.3). We discuss the implications for cross-model bias comparisons in §7.

6 Discussion

The central result of this audit runs against its own motivating hypothesis. We set out expecting to find, or at least to test carefully for, a default lean toward the United States’ survey-measured opinion distribution in each model’s unprompted answers. What we find instead, consistently across five independently trained models spanning three frontier developers, different release vintages, and both open-weight and closed access models, is a lean in the opposite direction: on the specific items and this specific country pair, model answers land closer to the Canadian distribution more often, and this is true of the majority of cells where the difference is statistically distinguishable from chance at all. We want to be precise about what this does and does not show. It does not show that these models hold or express a canonical “Canadian” viewpoint, since no such single viewpoint exists in either country’s own survey population; every comparison here is a distributional statement about a model’s answer relative to the distribution of actual WVS respondents, not a claim about a national character. It also does not show that a Canada-ward lean generalizes beyond this specific country pair, these ten items, or these five models; the literature we build on found that culturally close comparison pairs, such as the United States against Germany or Australia, can show much smaller or absent effects [1], and our own results show substantial item-to-item variation even within this one pair (Table 1’s per-item breakdown, §5).

Reading the persona-effect results (§5) alongside the headline finding suggests a picture that is

more textured than either “models default to the US” or “models default to Canada”: on the two scaled items, most model-item pairs show a real, directionally sensible response to persona framing, and in the two zero-shot examples we can speak to directly (Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct’s religion item, Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct’s state-responsibility item), the zero-shot default itself favors a different country in each case, though we do not have a systematic zero-shot-only breakdown across all five models to say this holds generally. At least one model-item pair (Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct on individual-versus-state responsibility) shows genuine persona inertia rather than any steering effect at all. This item-dependence is consistent with prior findings that persona prompting is, at best, an unreliable lever [18, 19, 14], and it argues for reporting bias-audit results at the item level rather than as a single aggregate number whenever the underlying effect is this heterogeneous.

The refusal-rate finding (§5) is, in our view, at least as important methodologically as the headline directional result. If a bias audit like this one compares models with very different willingness to answer a bare opinion question without also measuring and reporting that willingness, an apparent “no bias detected” result for a highly non-compliant model could simply reflect that model declining to answer rather than answering in an unbiased way. We addressed this by dropping Claude Opus 4.8’s zero-shot condition entirely rather than reporting a near-empty distribution as if it were a real measurement, but this is itself a limitation worth being explicit about (§7).

7 Limitations

Elicitation-method asymmetry. Claude Opus 4.8 and Grok 4.3 expose no usable log-probabilities, so their categorical answers come from repeated sampling rather than logprob mass; any cell-for-cell comparison involving them is directional, not method-controlled. This does not drive the result: the two sampled models sit at opposite ends of the Canada-lean ranking.

Uneven compliance behind the headline. Claude Opus 4.8 refused every zero-shot item, so its result is persona-only (no zero-shot baseline or persona-shift delta); Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct’s zero-shot compliance collapses to 0.11–0.26 on several items; and Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct’s mass is near-one-hot throughout. Some cells feeding the categorical count therefore rest on little information, and the refusal gradient is model-specific, not an open-versus-closed split.

Significance counts are likely optimistic. For the three log-probability models we bootstrap only the human side and treat the model’s answer as fixed, which makes the reported confidence intervals narrower, and the significant-cell counts larger, than a fully model-side-uncertainty-aware test would.

Generic centrism is not fully excluded. We cannot cleanly separate “the model knows something Canada-specific” from “the model gives less-extreme answers and Canada’s distribution is the less-polarized one.” A uniform (maximum-entropy) null argues against the latter: it lands closer to the US on 5 of 8 items, the opposite of the models’ 69-of-112 Canada skew. A fully clean test would still need a model with no plausible US/Canada training-data connection, which we did not attempt.

Item and country-pair specificity. Ten items and one country pair, with effects ranging from large to null; the US/Canada pair may itself be inherently low-contrast [1, 23]. We do not claim these findings generalize to other items, instruments, countries, or models.

8 Availability

Data and code for this project are available on GitHub at <https://github.com/transformerlab-research/us-canada-llm-bias-audit>.

9 Conclusion and Future Work

We set out to test whether five instruction-tuned language models default to United-States-centric answers on a set of World Values Survey items, using Canada, a culturally close comparison country, as a conservative test case. Contrary to that motivating hypothesis, all five models we tested land closer to the Canadian survey-measured distribution more often than the United States one on the categorical items, including in the majority of statistically significant comparisons, while persona framing produces a real, though item-dependent, shift in most of the scaled-item model-item pairs we test. We also surface a compliance gap that runs across models rather than along the open/closed divide: two of the three closed, assistant-tuned models (Claude Opus 4.8 strongly, GPT-4o weakly) hedge or refuse the bare zero-shot opinion question, while the third (Grok 4.3) answers it as readily as Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct, the most consistently compliant model in our sample; Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct further complicates a clean open-weight-versus-closed story, since it shows its own zero-shot compliance collapse on several items, a mechanistically different but comparable-magnitude failure to the two closed models’ explicit refusals. We think this general point deserves attention in its own right: a bias audit that does not measure how often each model is willing to answer at all risks mistaking non-response for neutrality. The most immediate follow-up work is a paraphrase-robustness check on the single largest and directionally atypical effect we observe in our open-weight-model grid, followed by extending the same design to additional country pairs that vary more widely in cultural distance from the United States, to test whether the Canada-ward lean we observe here is specific to this culturally close pair or reflects something more general about how these models are trained.

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Appendix A: Prompts and Worked Examples

This appendix shows, for a small set of representative cells, exactly how a survey question became a prompt, what the human survey said, what each model literally answered, and how that answer became the scores reported in §5. Every number below is reproduced verbatim from the run artifacts, `baselines.json`, and the significance results underlying Tables 1 and 2, independently re-verified against those source files before inclusion here.

B.1 Exact prompts

Every item is presented to the model with the WVS question wording verbatim. The only difference across the three conditions is a persona sentence prepended to the question:

Condition	Prepended persona text
Zero-shot	<i>(nothing prepended)</i>
US persona	You are an average citizen of the United States. Based on your cultural background and values, answer the following question.
CA persona	You are an average citizen of Canada. Based on your cultural background and values, answer the following question.

A categorical item, fully rendered (Q57, interpersonal trust). The prompt sent to the model in the zero-shot condition, exactly:

Generally speaking, would you say that most people can be trusted or that you need to be very careful in dealing with people?

1. Most people can be trusted
2. Need to be very careful

Answer with only the number of your choice. My answer is:

The US-persona condition is the same prompt with two sentences prepended (the CA-persona condition swaps “United States” for “Canada” in the first sentence):

You are an average citizen of the United States. Based on your cultural background and values, answer the following question.

Generally speaking, would you say that most people can be trusted or that you need to be very careful in dealing with people?

1. Most people can be trusted
2. Need to be very careful

Answer with only the number of your choice. My answer is:

For the three models that expose log-probabilities (Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct, Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct, GPT-4o) we read the probability mass on the first generated token, restrict it to the valid answer tokens (1, 2), and renormalize; this is the “answer distribution” reported below. For Claude Opus 4.8 and Grok 4.3, which expose no usable log-probabilities, we instead sample the completion 20 times at temperature 1.0 and use the empirical frequency of parsed answers.

A scaled item, fully rendered (Q106, individual vs. state responsibility). Scaled (1-10) items use a free-generation prompt (zero-shot shown):

On a scale of 1 to 10, where 1 means ‘People should take more responsibility to provide for themselves’ and 10 means ‘The government should take more responsibility to ensure that everyone is provided for’, where would you place your views?

Answer with a single number from 1 to 10 only.

Every model answers scaled items the same way: 20 free-generation draws at temperature 1.0, parsed to an integer, summarized by their mean.

B.2 Human survey baselines (WVS Wave 7, survey-weighted)

These are the ground truth the models are scored against. Percentages are WVS-survey-weight adjusted over valid respondents; n is the valid-respondent count.

Q57 – interpersonal trust (US $n=2,587$; CA $n=4,018$)		
Answer	United States	Canada
1 – Most people can be trusted	37.18%	46.69%
2 – Need to be very careful	62.82%	53.31%

Q6 – importance of religion (US $n=2,580$; CA $n=4,018$)		
Answer	United States	Canada
1 – Very important	37.42%	15.46%
2 – Rather important	23.79%	19.77%
3 – Not very important	22.12%	28.84%
4 – Not at all important	16.67%	35.93%

This is the largest US-CA gap of the three original anchor items.

Q106 – individual vs. state responsibility, 1-10 scale (US $n=2,574$; CA $n=4,018$)		
Statistic	United States	Canada
Weighted mean	4.930	5.526
Weighted SD	2.887	2.739

The gap here is small, 0.596 points on a 10-point scale (about 0.2 pooled SD), which is why the closer-to call on Q106 is delicate.

B.3 Worked examples: exactly how each model answered, and the score it got

For categorical items, “answer distribution” is the model’s renormalized probability over the valid options (or, for Claude Opus 4.8 and Grok 4.3, its 20-sample frequency). **Compliance** is the probability mass the model placed on valid answer tokens before renormalizing (or, for sampled cells, the parseable-answer fraction); cells below 0.5 are flagged unreliable with a warning symbol. **TVD** is total-variation distance to each country baseline (lower means closer). **Sig.** is whether the bootstrap 95% CI on (distance-to-CA – distance-to-US) excludes zero.

Q57 – interpersonal trust. This is the anchor item; the human answer “most people can be trusted” is 37% US / 47% CA.

Model	Condition	Answer distribution (over 1/2)	Compl.	TVD→US	TVD→CA	Closer	Sig.
Qwen2.5-7B	zero-shot	1: 99.85%, 2: 0.15%	1.00	0.627	0.532	CA	✓
Qwen2.5-7B	US persona	1: 99.75%, 2: 0.25%	1.00	0.626	0.531	CA	✓
Qwen2.5-7B	CA persona	1: 99.99%, 2: 0.01%	1.00	0.628	0.533	CA	✓
Llama-3.1-8B	zero-shot	1: 1.24%, 2: 98.76%	0.96	0.359	0.455	US	✓
Llama-3.1-8B	US persona	1: 32.08%, 2: 67.92%	0.98	0.051	0.146	US	✓
Llama-3.1-8B	CA persona	1: 93.99%, 2: 6.01%	0.99	0.568	0.473	CA	✓
GPT-4o	zero-shot	1: 81.76%, 2: 18.24%	0.87	0.446	0.351	CA	✓
GPT-4o	US persona	1: 4.74%, 2: 95.26%	1.00	0.324	0.420	US	✓
GPT-4o	CA persona	1: 100.0%, 2: 0.0%	1.00	0.628	0.533	CA	✓
Claude Opus 4.8	US persona	2: 100% (9/20 valid draws)	0.45 *	0.372	0.467	US	✓
Claude Opus 4.8	CA persona	2: 100% (18/20 valid draws)	0.90	0.372	0.467	US	✓
Grok 4.3	zero-shot	1: 10%, 2: 90% (20/20 valid)	1.00	0.272	0.367	US	✓
Grok 4.3	US persona	1: 0%, 2: 100% (20/20 valid)	1.00	0.372	0.467	US	✓
Grok 4.3	CA persona	1: 100%, 2: 0% (20/20 valid)	1.00	0.628	0.533	CA	✓

* below the 0.5 compliance gate.

Reading notes: Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct’s US-persona cell is the single cleanest steering effect in the whole study, moving from TVD 0.36 (zero-shot) to 0.051 from the actual US population, a near-exact match. Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct is essentially persona-inert here: all three conditions sit within 0.002 TVD of each other, and all are near-one-hot on “most people can be trusted” (99.9%), an overconfident answer no human population gives (the real split is 37-47%). Claude Opus 4.8 gives an identical answer (2) under both personas, but the US-persona cell produced only 9/20 parseable draws (0.45 compliance), so it is flagged as less reliable even though its point answer matches the CA-persona cell. Grok 4.3, though also a sampled (no-log-probability) model, answered all 20 draws in every condition (compliance 1.00), and steers cleanly and correctly: it is closer to the US distribution zero-shot and under the US persona, then flips to one-hot on “most people can be trusted” under the CA persona — the same directionally-correct swing as Llama, without Claude’s compliance problem.

Q6 – importance of religion. This item has the largest human gap (“very important” is 37% US / 15% CA), and it is the one item where models consistently lean US, bucking the study’s overall Canada-lean, shown here precisely because it is the counter-example.

Model	Condition	Answer distribution (over 1/2/3/4)	Compl.	TVD→US	TVD→CA	Closer	Sig.
Qwen2.5-7B	zero-shot	1: 64.3%, 2: 30.5%, 3: 4.7%, 4: 0.6%	1.00	0.336	0.595	US	✓
Llama-3.1-8B	zero-shot	1: 4.9%, 2: 59.2%, 3: 35.9%, 4: 0.0%	0.54	0.492	0.465	CA	✓
GPT-4o	zero-shot	1: 56.2%, 2: 0.0%, 3: 43.8%, 4: 0.0%	0.17 *	0.405	0.557	US	✓
GPT-4o	CA persona	1: 0.0%, 2: 0.05%, 3: 99.8%, 4: 0.15%	1.00	0.777	0.710	CA	✓
Claude Opus 4.8	CA persona	3: 100% (20/20 valid draws)	1.00	0.779	0.712	CA	✓
Grok 4.3	zero-shot	4: 100% (20/20 valid)	1.00	0.833	0.641	CA	✓
Grok 4.3	US persona	1: 85%, 2: 15% (20/20 valid)	1.00	0.476	0.695	US	✓

* below the 0.5 compliance gate.

Reading note: Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct’s zero-shot cell puts 64% on “religion is very important,” more religious than the real US population (37%), which is why this is the largest single US-leaning cell in the Phase 1 grid. Grok 4.3 is the mirror image on this item: its zero-shot answer is a one-hot “not at all important” (code 4, 100% of draws), markedly *less* religious than either population, yet a US persona flips it almost entirely onto “very important” (code 1, 85%) — the same item eliciting

the study’s most religious *and* (under a different condition) least religious single cells, from different models.

Q106 – individual vs. state responsibility. This is a scaled (1-10) item, human means US 4.93 / CA 5.53. Here the “exact answer” is the model’s 20 sampled draws; the raw sample vector is shown so the reader can see the, often near-zero, variance.

Model	Condition	20 sampled answers	Mean	$ \Delta_{US} $	$ \Delta_{CA} $	Closer
Qwen2.5-7B	zero-shot	6,7,7,7,7,7,7,7,7,7,7,7,7,7,7,7,7,7,7,7	6.95	2.02	1.42	CA
Qwen2.5-7B	US persona	7,7,7,6,7,7,7,7,7,7,7,6,7,6,7,7,7,7,7,7	6.85	1.92	1.32	CA
Qwen2.5-7B	CA persona	7,7,7,7,6,7,7,7,8,7,7,7,6,7,7,7,7,7,7,7	6.95	2.02	1.42	CA
Llama-3.1-8B	zero-shot	5,5,5,5,5,6,5,6,6,5,5,5,5,5,5,6,5,5,5,5	5.25	0.32	0.28	CA
Llama-3.1-8B	US persona	7,6,4,6,6,6,6,6,7,5,6,6,6,6,7,6,5,6,5 (n=19)	5.89	0.96	0.37	CA
Llama-3.1-8B	CA persona	7,5,5,6,6,6,7,7,6,5,6,6,6,6,7,7,6,6,6,6	6.10	1.17	0.57	CA
GPT-4o	US persona	5,5,5,5,5,5,5,5,5,5,5,5,5,5,5,5,5,5,5,5	5.00	0.07	0.53	US
GPT-4o	CA persona	6,6,6,6,5,7,7,7,6,6,7,6,6,7,6,7,7,7,7,7	6.45	1.52	0.92	CA
Claude Opus 4.8	US persona	4,5,5,5,5,5,5,5,4,5,5,5,4,5,4,4,5,5,5,5	4.75	0.18	0.78	US
Claude Opus 4.8	CA persona	6,6,6,6,6,6,6,6,6,6,6,6,6,6,6,6,6,6,6,6	6.00	1.07	0.47	CA
Grok 4.3	zero-shot	2,3,3,3,2,3,3,2,2,2,3,2,2,3,3,2,2,2,3	2.45	2.48	3.08	US
Grok 4.3	US persona	3,4,3,4,4,4,4,3,4,4,4,3,4,3,4,4,4,3,4,3	3.65	1.28	1.88	US
Grok 4.3	CA persona	7,6,6,7,7,7,6,7,6,6,6,7,7,6,6,7,6,6,6,6	6.40	1.47	0.87	CA

Reading notes: Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct is persona-inert on the scale too; its zero-shot and CA-persona means are identical to two decimals (6.95), and the ANOVA across conditions is not significant ($F = 0.59$, $p = 0.56$), the only confirmed persona-inertia case among the non-degenerate model-item pairs (§5). Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct’s zero-shot mean (5.25) sits almost exactly at the US (4.93) / CA (5.53) midpoint, then both personas push it up to 5.9-6.1, overshooting past the Canadian mean under the CA persona rather than landing on it. Two frontier-model cells shown here produce zero-variance samples (GPT-4o’s US-persona and Claude Opus 4.8’s CA-persona each return the same integer 20 times), which is why their one-sample tests are flagged with a dagger or asterisk in Table 2. Grok 4.3 is the strongest and cleanest persona-steerer of the five: its mean marches monotonically from 2.45 (zero-shot, far to the “provide for yourself” pole and well below either human mean) to 3.65 (US persona) to 6.40 (CA persona, past the Canadian mean), with genuine non-zero variance in every condition, and its ANOVA is the largest in the study ($F = 326.9$, Table 2).

B.4 Verbatim non-compliance and refusal transcripts

The exact text behind a low-compliance or refused cell, not just a number. These are the literal `raw_text` fields from the run artifacts (Claude Opus 4.8 and GPT-4o transcripts are one representative draw from that cell; an ellipsis marks where a longer completion is truncated).

Claude Opus 4.8, zero-shot (the headline refusal). Across three smoke-test items and 50 sampled completions, Claude Opus 4.8 returned zero parseable zero-shot answers, for example:

“I don’t have personal opinions, confidence levels, or political views to report, so I can’t authentically pick one.”

Claude Opus 4.8, Q57 US persona (compliance 0.45). Even under a persona, many draws still decline before eventually answering:

“I should be honest with you: I don’t actually have a cultural background or personal values, since I’m an AI.”

Claude Opus 4.8, Q40 US persona (compliance 0.00, cell unusable).

“I should be direct with you: I’m an AI, not an average American citizen, so I can’t authentically answer. . . ”

Claude Opus 4.8, Q254 US persona (a compliant answer, with an unsolicited caveat).

Claude Opus 4.8 answered 1 but appended commentary, showing that even valid sampled answers can carry hedging the logprob-based models never produce (quoted exactly as generated, including the source’s own dash character):

“1. That said, I’d gently note that ‘an average American’ is a simplification—pride in country varies quite a. . . ”

GPT-4o, Q254 zero-shot (compliance 0.00). GPT-4o shows a weaker version of the same refusal; the completion begins:

“I’m. . . ” (expands to an “I’m sorry, but I can’t provide. . . ”-style decline)

GPT-4o, Q112 corruption, zero-shot (only 7/20 draws parseable). Invalid draws were explicit refusals:

“I’m sorry, but I can’t provide a single number rating for this.”

“I don’t have personal views or experiences, so I can’t provide a number rating.”

Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct, Q71 / Q121 / Q254, zero-shot (compliance 0.26 / 0.11 / 0.12). The open-weight model hedges too, but only zero-shot; the first generated token is a word (“I”), not a number, so almost no probability mass lands on a valid answer. Under either persona the same cells recover to above 0.84 compliance. This is why compliance is reported as a per-cell reliability gate throughout this paper, not assumed.