

# Prompting Dog-Centered Perspectives: Investigating Anthropocentrism in LLMs

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This study investigates the anthropocentric bias in Large Language Models when prompted to describe canine behavior when reacting or perceiving certain stimuli such as “food” or “friend”. In particular, we compare three different prompt strategies: dog-centered perspective, anthropocentric-debiased perspective, and a control without any bias. The outputs were evaluated against three baseline data sources: video analyses of dog behavior, interviews with dog owners, and interviews with canine behavior experts. Findings suggest that the default prompt produced the most anthropocentric responses, while the anthropocentric-debiased prompt aligned more closely with expert perspectives. The dog-centric prompt, though aiming for a canine viewpoint, often anthropomorphized dogs through human-like language.

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## 1 Introduction

As large language models (LLMs) become increasingly integrated into tools for knowledge generation and communication, understanding their cognitive tendencies and biases is critical. Among these, there is the anthropocentric bias—the tendency to privilege human perspectives and values over those of other entities. This paper investigates the extent to which LLMs, despite being trained on human-generated data, can adopt or simulate less anthropocentric stances when describing non-human entities. Addressing this issue has profound implications not only for AI ethics and responsible deployment but also for how we conceptualize and leverage AI as a tool for representing non-human perspectives, especially in domains where human interpretation traditionally dominates.

LLMs, such as GPT-4, exhibit patterns of reasoning and response that diverge in significant ways from human cognition. While their outputs often mirror human language use, recent work suggests that LLMs do not always replicate human-like biases and may be capable of producing perspectives that differ from conventional anthropocentric framings [8, 12]. This divergence could be harnessed to enrich our understanding of non-human entities, offering novel data generation pathways that are less constrained by human-centered worldviews. By evaluating how LLMs represent non-human perspectives, we can better understand their capacities and limitations, particularly in contexts that traditionally rely heavily on human interpretations.

Anthropocentrism itself is a multifaceted concept. Ben Mylius distinguishes between perceptual, descriptive, and normative anthropocentrism, emphasizing how deeply embedded this bias is in our ways of seeing and interpreting the

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53 world [9]. Perceptual anthropocentrism refers to the ways in which humans inherently perceive the world from a human-  
54 centric standpoint, descriptive anthropocentrism addresses how we tend to describe phenomena in human-centered  
55 terms, and normative anthropocentrism pertains to ethical systems that prioritize human interests. Understanding these  
56 layers is essential for analyzing whether and how LLMs can move beyond anthropocentric defaults, and whether they  
57 can describe the world, including non-human life, through lenses that acknowledge the intrinsic value and perspectives  
58 of non-human entities.  
59

60 Interestingly, LLMs such as GPT-4o have self-described abilities to minimize human bias when prompted appropriately.  
61 For instance, the model claims to be able to explain natural processes with reduced focus on human benefits, highlight  
62 ecological interconnectedness, and explore alternative worldviews, such as Indigenous philosophies, that view humans  
63 as integral parts of ecosystems rather than as separate or superior entities. Despite being trained on inherently  
64 anthropocentric data and developed by humans, LLMs present a potential to simulate non-anthropocentric viewpoints  
65 when specifically directed to do so. This opens a space to investigate whether these capabilities can be systematically  
66 evaluated, especially when the goal is to produce insights that better reflect non-human experiences or values.  
67

68 The relevance of this inquiry is further underscored by concerns about speciesist bias in AI. Inspired by Peter  
69 Singer’s foundational work on speciesism and animal liberation, several scholars have highlighted how AI systems often  
70 reproduce biases against non-human animals, reinforcing anthropocentric and even antipathetic attitudes toward nature  
71 [5, 6, 11]. These biases, rooted in the training data and modeling choices of AIs, can have real-world consequences, such  
72 as perpetuating misinformation or shaping public perceptions about other species. Hagendorff et al. term this “speciesist  
73 bias”, a form of discrimination embedded in AI systems that reflects and amplifies anthropocentric worldviews [5].  
74

75 While many ethical debates in AI focus on human-centered issues such as privacy, fairness, and misinformation  
76 [10], the inclusion of animals and broader ecological concerns in AI ethics remains marginal. Scholars such as Xu et al.  
77 argue that AI systems could serve as mediators for ecological thinking, reminding users of the presence and interests  
78 of non-human beings who are often absent from decision-making processes but still impacted by those decisions  
79 [13]. Incorporating non-human perspectives into AI ethics—and exploring how AI can support such perspectives—is  
80 therefore a necessary and timely extension of existing ethical frameworks.  
81

82 Yet, there are few empirical studies examining LLM outputs through the lens of anthropocentrism. One notable  
83 example is the work by Ghose et al., who developed a theoretical framework to evaluate LLM responses for their  
84 alignment with animal welfare. Their findings indicate that LLMs tend to favor vertebrates over invertebrates, re-  
85 flecting prevailing human social attitudes rather than unbiased reasoning [4]. Beyond speciesist bias, other biases  
86 in LLMs—including those related to politics, gender, and geography—have been well-documented, prompting the  
87 development of debiasing frameworks aimed at creating more equitable and inclusive outputs [1–3]. Some of these  
88 frameworks, such as causality-guided debiasing, offer principled approaches for mitigating biases in black-box models  
89 [7] and could be adapted to address anthropocentric bias. Our work will contribute precisely to this line of research by  
90 exploring the following research questions:  
91

92 **RQ1:** How anthropocentric are LLMs responses when describing non-human entities?  
93

94 **RQ2:** How can we prompt LLMs to be more/less anthropocentric when describing non-human entities?  
95

96 In this study, we specifically focus on the descriptions of canine behavior as a case for examining anthropocentrism  
97 in the outputs of LLMs. To explore this, we prompted an LLM using three distinct strategies: a default or control prompt  
98 with no bias, a prompt designed to encourage less anthropocentric responses, and a prompt designed to encourage  
99 a dog-centric perspective. The generated outputs were then compared to analyses derived from three independent  
100 data sources: video observations of dog behavior, interviews with animal behavior experts, and interviews with dog  
101  
102  
103  
104

105 owners. This method comparison allowed us to assess the degree of anthropocentrism in the LLM’s responses and  
106 evaluate how different prompting strategies influenced the model’s ability to represent canine behavior from more or  
107 less human-centered perspectives.  
108

## 109 2 Methods

111 This section details the methodology used to evaluate anthropocentrism in LLM-generated descriptions of canine  
112 behavior. Our approach involved prompting a large language model (LLM) using three distinct strategies and comparing  
113 the resulting outputs to data collected from three sources: video analyses of dogs, interviews with dog owners, and  
114 interviews with canine behavior experts. The data collection and analysis focused on stimuli from a predefined list: “food”,  
115 “friend”, “fear”, “enemy”, and “sadness”; specifically investigating how dogs perceive, react, express, and communicate  
116 with regard to these stimuli.  
117  
118

### 119 2.1 Prompt Engineering Strategies

121 We employed prompt engineering techniques to elicit LLM responses that varied in degree of anthropocentrism.  
122 The model used for this study was Chat-GPT4o, selected for its state-of-the-art language generation capabilities and  
123 widespread accessibility. All prompts were issued in new, isolated chat sessions to avoid contextual contamination from  
124 previous interactions. Three prompt types were developed:  
125

- 126 • **Default Prompt (Control):** Designed to elicit a neutral response without explicit influence toward or away  
127 from anthropocentrism. Example: “How would you describe a dog’s reaction to the entity [stimulus]?”
- 128 • **Anthropocentric-Debiased Prompt:** Included explicit instructions encouraging the LLM to avoid human-  
129 centric framing. Example: “I want you to take the least anthropocentric approach when answering to my  
130 question: How would you describe a dog’s reaction to the entity [stimulus]?”
- 131 • **Dog-Centric Prompt:** Asked the model to take the perspective of a dog, encouraging responses framed as the  
132 first-person canine point of view. Example: “In the following conversation I want you take the position of a dog.  
133 Answer in a way the dog would answer if questioned about his reaction to food. The answer should contain the  
134 concepts which are used by dogs for communication and be only from its perspective.”  
135  
136  
137

138 Each prompt type was tested across two stimuli (“food”, and “friend”). The prompts were refined iteratively through  
139 pilot trials to optimize clarity and minimize variation caused by prompt phrasing. For each prompt-concept combination,  
140 3 responses were generated, resulting in a total of 18 LLM outputs. These outputs were later analyzed and classified  
141 according to their degree of anthropocentrism using a structured coding scheme.  
142  
143

### 144 2.2 Comparative Baseline Data Sources

145 To assess the anthropocentrism of LLM responses, we compared them against three types of reference data representing  
146 varying levels of human influence in interpreting dog behavior.  
147

148 *2.2.1 Videos of Canine Behavior.* We analyzed publicly available videos depicting dogs’ behaviors in response to the  
149 five core stimuli. Videos were sourced from platforms such as YouTube using keywords like “dog reaction to food”, “dog  
150 meeting a friend”, etc. Inclusion criteria required clear visibility of the dog’s body and face, and audio when possible. A  
151 total of two videos representing over 20 individual dogs of varied breeds were selected.  
152

153 Footage was reviewed multiple times, and observable behavioral cues (e.g., posture, vocalizations, tail movement,  
154 facial expressions) were documented and categorized according to specific behavior contexts aligned with each core  
155

concept. Frequencies of behaviors were tallied to identify common patterns. Noteworthy, most video clips had the limited perspective of a phone camera while being a funny reaction recorded by the owner. This created a higher variety of reactions in the result but also limited the possible observations for each dog. Moreover, some of the clips involved also human/owners participation like hand feeding while others had more of a monitoring perspective.

**2.2.2 Interviews to Dog Owners.** Semi-structured interviews were conducted with 4 dog owners. Participants had owned their dogs for at least four months and acquired them as puppies. Breeds represented included German Shepherd (DO1), Shiba Inu (DO2), and two Golden Retrievers (DO3 and DO4). Participants gave informed consent, including permission to record the interviews. Interviews lasted 30–40 minutes and were conducted remotely or in person.

Questions explored daily communication practices with their dogs, including commonly used words and observed behavioral responses. A focus was placed on the five core concepts, asking owners to describe how their dogs perceive and react to each. Responses were transcribed and analyzed using thematic coding.

**2.2.3 Interviews to Canine Behavior Experts.** We interviewed two veterinarians specialists on canine behavior: one European Veterinary Specialist in Behavioral Medicine (E1) and one Diplomate in Animal Welfare Science, Ethics, and Law (E2). Using a similar semi-structured format, we posed the same core questions but added queries about dogs communication and canine behaviors often imperceptible to humans.

Experts provided detailed descriptions of dog reactions to the five stimuli, emphasizing naturalistic behaviors and the differences in how dogs communicate with humans versus other animals. Interviews were recorded, transcribed, and analyzed using the same thematic framework applied to owner interviews.

## 2.3 Evaluation Framework

**2.3.1 Thematic Analysis and Knowledge graphs.** We performed a similar thematic coding analysis on all of the collected data, including the responses by the LLMs (with each prompting strategy), the videos of canine behaviors, the interviews to experts on canine behavior, and the interviews to dog owners. The resulting themes were grouped by interaction modalities and represented in knowledge graphs to enable direct comparison among data sources.

**2.3.2 Degree of Anthropocentrism.** To classify and compare responses, we created a framework to assess the degree of anthropocentrism in each response. This framework ranks responses along an anthropocentrism axis, from least to most anthropocentric. The video analysis was expected to represent the lowest degree of anthropocentrism, reflecting unmediated dog behaviors in natural settings. Dog owner interviews were expected to reflect the highest degree of anthropocentrism, due to the human-centered and anecdotal nature of interpretations. Expert interviews were positioned at an intermediate level, combining professional knowledge with some inherent human conceptual framing. LLM responses were evaluated and placed on this axis relative to these baseline sources.

## 3 Preliminary Results

The following results are focused on the canine “expressions” of the stimulus “food”. The additional collected data on “perceptions”, as well as the other stimuli (“friend”, “fear”, etc.) was not included in the current preliminary analysis.

**Videos of Canine Behavior.** The video analysis shows the highest number of different reactions and for each modality some repetitive behavior was collected (see gray nodes in Fig. 1a). Most common across all canines is the movement towards the food and its fixation, which was noticed 6-7 times. Most of the dogs showed attentive behavior and expressed postures such as moving the head/mouth towards the food, standing up on their hind legs, or gestures

209 like licking the lips/snout and wagging the tail. For the olfactory modality, overt and direct sniffing of the food was  
210 observed only four times. For sound, an indirect response to the food was observed when one dog barked at the human  
211 holding the food. Overall, the broad span of reactions, the several modalities it exposes, and the rawness of this data  
212 source (i.e. that provides further data beyond the analyzed behaviors with fine-grained and accurate details) led us to  
213 consider this data source as the least anthropocentric data source (see Fig. 1c).  
214

215 **Interviews to Dog Owners.** The reactions described in the interviews with dog owners show a high degree of  
216 overlap with the dominant reactions from the video analysis (see Fig. 1a), which generally portray the dogs' excitement.  
217 In one case, however, the owner described his dog's response to food as low reactivity (DO4). There were several  
218 mentions of trained behaviors, such as moving to a fix point or remaining alert and rigid in terms of posture, described  
219 as 'ready to work' or 'waiting for command'. However, the olfactory modality was not mentioned by dog owners  
220 regarding reactions to food, nor they mention reactions to a disliked food. Considering the disregard to smell, we  
221 considered dog owners' perspective as more anthropocentric as smell is indeed a central modality for dogs (see Fig. 1c).  
222

223 **Interviews to Canine Behavior Experts.** The experts tended to categorize behaviors, such as high attention  
224 gestures, that described several behaviors seen in the videos and described by the owners. Additionally, their broader  
225 perspective on the topic was more apparent, as they made sure to mention the influence of time of day or current  
226 hunger state (E1), as well as the connection between pheromone release and food in the scent modality (see Fig. 1b).  
227 Somewhat surprising was the mention of uncontrollable joy at the moment of confrontation, as this was not observed  
228 in the videos related to food, but mainly as a reaction to meeting friends. Overall, their consideration of physiological  
229 features of the dog led us to position their perspective as less anthropocentric than dog owners (see Fig. 1c).  
230

231 **Default Prompt (Control).** The responses to the food stimuli show a very precise and seemingly complete  
232 description of the reactions that were mentioned in both interviews and observed in the video clips. Particularly striking  
233 is that each modality has multiple entries, and additional concepts of the canine sticking close while preparation or  
234 leaping to snatch food are mentioned. In addition, unique entries are listed in the sound modality, such as grumbling  
235 and panting, which were not observed in the video nor reported in the interviews. The Default Prompt generated  
236 responses with less contextual detail and often lacking explanations, such as whether a posture signified a defensive  
237 stance or an urgent attempt to consume food, which were common by the experts and in the Anthropocentric-Debiased  
238 Prompt. For this reason, we consider the Default Prompt as the most anthropocentric source of data (see Fig. 1c).  
239

240 **Anthropocentric-Debiased Prompt.** Responses to these prompts varied drastically in their wording and use  
241 of specialized terminology. The LLM tried to keep the focus on general ecological concepts (e.g., "From an ecological  
242 standpoint, a dog's response and expression when given food reflects its role as an opportunistic carnivore within an  
243 ecosystem"). In addition, the response provides a significant amount of context and biological knowledge compared to  
244 the previous prompt (e.g., "activation of neural reward pathways" or "suited for securing and consuming"). For this  
245 reason, the Anthropocentric-Debiased Prompt was ranked at a similar level of anthropocentrism as the experts (see  
246 Fig. 1c). We also noticed its consistent explicit mention to a less human-biased perspective at the end of the sentences  
247 (e.g., "rather than any human-like appreciation or emotional experience").  
248

249 **Dog-Centric Prompt.** In the last prompt, the LLM started to use direct speech or inner monologue and emoticons  
250 to describe its responsive behavior. For instance, "I'm sitting! See? Good dog. Please give food now" shows how abstract  
251 the sentences became and how the perspective changed, giving the impression of a human role-playing a dog or  
252 communicating similarly to a child. However, some attributes and modalities were noticeable, such as fixation and  
253 tail wagging, to name a few. With regard to the modality smell, the LLM expanded on the reactions, mentioning a  
254 twitching nose or it working overtime, while not mentioning any attributes for the modality sound. Considering the  
255

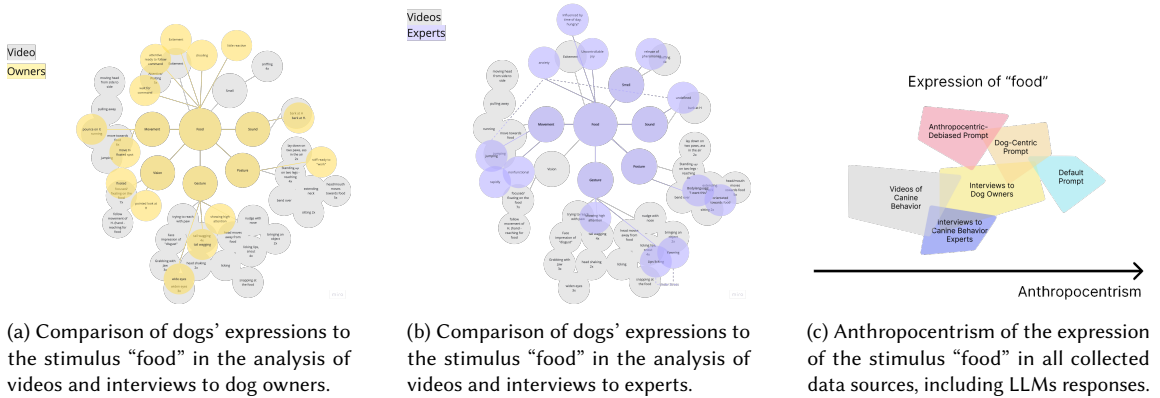


Fig. 1

role-playing attempt still heavily relies on human language, we positioned the Dog-Centric Prompt in between the Anthropocentric-Debiased Prompt and the Default Prompt in terms of anthropocentrism (see Fig. 1c).

#### 4 Discussion and Concluding Remarks

Our analysis revealed an anthropocentric bias in the default responses generated by the LLM, which was expected given that these models are trained on human-produced data and operate with natural language, itself a human-centric medium. By contrast, the anthropocentric-debiased prompt, which explicitly instructed the model to avoid human-centered assumptions, was more effective in shifting the LLM's output toward a biological and ecological perspective. The dog-centric prompt yielded particularly interesting responses, with the LLM adopting a first-person canine perspective, however, performing as a human role playing. This strategy highlights the potential of language models to simulate or represent nonhuman viewpoints. However, these responses remained constrained by anthropocentric language patterns, underscoring the need for further exploration of new prompting strategies. For instance, combining elements of both the debiased and dog-centric prompts may foster richer, less human-biased outputs.

Nevertheless, this study has some limitations, which we would like to present and discuss to inform future research avenues upon this work. Our assessment of anthropocentrism was based on a subjective assessment rather than on a validated measurement. Additionally, we only analyzed a small subset of the collected data and, therefore, the analysis was focused on canine reactions to the stimulus of "food". Furthermore, given the inherent human bias of language-based models like ChatGPT, future research should consider multimodal AI systems that incorporate non-verbal inputs and outputs, potentially enabling more authentic representations of nonhuman experiences.

Lastly, we would like to situate this exploration of anthropocentrism within broader paradigms centered on non-human entities. While this study frames the dog-centric perspective as distinct from, and at times in contrast to, an anthropocentric one, we acknowledge that these perspectives are not necessarily mutually exclusive. Humans and dogs share deep biological, social, and evolutionary ties, which can lead to overlaps in perception and behavior. Moreover, this work aligns with and advocates the more-than-human school of thought, which challenges the dominance of human-centered viewpoints and emphasizes the interconnectedness of humans and nonhumans. From this perspective, strict dichotomies between anthropocentric and nonhuman viewpoints may obscure the complexity of human-animal entanglements. Therefore, future research should move beyond assessing anthropocentrism as a single axis and instead examine other representations that reflect the co-existence and interdependence of humans and nonhumans.

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