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Advances in Political Economy

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each of the parameters of interest. Similarly, allowing the Gibbs sampler to run this long reduces the effects of the inherent autocorrelation that occurs in the sampler.

The results of the VCL are shown in Table 4. We show the VCL estimates of the parameter values and the corresponding 95 percent credible intervals. In this example, we use the Liberal Party as the base group, thus their valence is always restricted at 0. For the model, we report β and the aggregate valences first. We then report the regional effect for each party. While the sociodemographic random effect values may be of substantive interest sometimes, they are included simply as controls in this case, thus we do not report these values. We also report the deviance information criterion (DIC), which is a hierarchical model analogue to AIC or BIC. When the posterior distribution is assumed to be multivariate normal (as it is in this case), the DIC functions as a measure of model quality rewarding a model with a small number of parameters, but penalizing a model that does not fit the data well. The DIC can be seen as a measure of the log-likelihood of the posterior density. Lower values of DIC are preferred.

From this model, we can see a number of things. First, as would have been pre-845 dicted before running the model, the Liberal Party is the highest valence party in Canada outside of Quebec. However, the Conservative Party is almost equivalent in 846 847 valence level. By simply adding the aggregate valence to the Non-Quebec regional random effect, we can see that the two are almost equivalent in valence outside of 848 Ouebec. However, this model shows that the BO is, in fact, the highest valence party 849 850 in Canada. This makes sense, given that of the people that could actually vote for the party, nearly 50 percent of them did. This exemplifies one of the strengths of this 851 852 model, which is that it accurately specifies this party as the highest valence party, even though it is only available to around 25 percent of the electorate. Thus, if we 853 view parties as entities that look down and see a uniform electorate of members 854 855 without specific regional affiliation or sociodemographic groups, then they would 856 estimate that BQ is the highest valence party.

857 Outside of Quebec, as mentioned before, the Conservative Party and the Liberal Party are the highest valence parties, with almost equivalent valence. The NDP is of 858 859 somewhat lower valence as the party simply does not have the same presence as its larger Liberal counterpart. However, its valence and positioning in the preference 860 861 space of Canada allows it to be a significant competitor outside of Quebec. The lowest valence party outside of Quebec is the Green Party, which makes plenty of 862 sense as it is was (and is still) more of a one-issue dimension party and fails to have 863 864 mass appeal to the electorate.

Inside Quebec, BQ is the highest valence party, with an even larger valence than that estimated by the aggregate valence measure. The Liberal Party also has a strong presence in Quebec; however, given that BQ and the Liberal Party are in similar areas of the preference space, they compete for many of the same voters and BQ simply has a stronger presence in Quebec. The Conservative Party is of somewhat lower valence within Quebec, as it fails to draw voters that instead choose to vote for BQ. The lowest valence party in Quebec is also the Green Party.

Recall that we are interested in finding where the parties will locate in the policy
 space in order to maximize their vote share. Because the outcome of the election

	200									
H 875 876 877 878 879 880 881		BQ		0.4525	(-0.9229, 2.322)	NQ Q		- (-1.67, 1.565)		4
S 882 883 B 884 886 886 887 888						Q	-0.4915	(-2.720, 1.062)		0
887 888 889 890 891 892 893 894		Greens	976)	-1.826	(-3.446, 0.2405)	NQ		() (-2.493, 1.217)		
895 896 897 898 899 900	base)		0.2598 (0.2234, 0.2976)			δ		(-1.465, 0.8110)	2029.291	
901 902 903 904 905 906	iodemographics (LPC	Conservatives		-0.0864	(-1.057, 1.107)	NQ	. –	4) (-1.135, 1.04)		
907 908 909 910 911 912	VCL model given soc				55)	δ	-0.6085	r) (-1.778, 0.4704)		
913 914 915 916 917 918	Table 4 2004 Canada VCL model given sociodemographics (LPC base)	NDP		-0.5883	(-1.678, 0.4625)	NQ	_j 0.0341	(-1.014, 1.127)	C	
919 920	Ta		β	λ_{j}			μ_{rj}		DIC	

depends on these vote shares, we assume that parties use polls and other information at their disposal to form an idea of the anticipated election outcome and then use this information to find their most preferred position taking into account their estimates of where other parties will locate.

One possibility is that all parties will locate at their respective electoral means, meaning that \mathbf{z}^* is as follows:

$$\mathbf{z}^* = \begin{bmatrix} Lib. Con. NDP & Grn. BQU \\ S & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1.11 \\ D & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -0.08 \end{bmatrix}$$

Notice that this means that BQ will not locate at the same position as the other parties as it only runs in Quebec, so its regional mean is at the mean of voters in Quebec. Given this vector of party positions and the information about the voter ideal points, we can calculate the Hessian of the vote function for each party as well as the convergence coefficient, $c(\mathbf{z}^*)$ for each party. For the Hessians, we are interested in the eigenvalues associated with the Hessians for each party; if they are both negative, then the Hessian is negative definite and the party location is at a local maximum. Given \mathbf{z}^* , if any of the Hessians are not negative definite, then one of the parties will not choose to locate at this position in equilibrium. Similarly, we can check the convergence coefficients to see if they meet the necessary condition for convergence. Given that any of these conditions fail, the party for which they fail will choose to move elsewhere in the policy space at equilibrium and. Given that the Green Party is the lowest valence party in both regions, as well as at the aggregate level, we can assume that if a party is going to move, it will be the Green Party. We now examine the Hessians and $c(\mathbf{z}^*)$ for each party.

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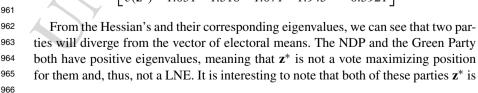
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$$\mathcal{H}_{Lib} = \begin{bmatrix} -0.0365 & -0.0004 \\ -0.0004 & -0.0705 \end{bmatrix}; \quad \mathcal{H}_{NDP} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.0021 & 0.0012 \\ 0.0012 & -0.0362 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\mathcal{H}_{Con} = \begin{bmatrix} -0.0326 & -0.0002 \\ -0.0002 & -0.0676 \end{bmatrix}; \quad \mathcal{H}_{GPC} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.0085 & 0.0085 \\ 0.0085 & -0.0091 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\mathcal{H}_{BQ} = \begin{bmatrix} -0.1194 & 0.0034 \\ 0.0034 & -0.1286 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$eigen(\mathcal{H}|z^*) = \begin{bmatrix} Lib. & NDP & Con. & Grn. & BQ \\ Eigen1 & -0.0365 & 0.0021 & -0.0326 & 0.0085 & -0.1183 \\ Eigen2 & -0.0705 & -0.0361 & -0.0676 & -0.0092 & -0.1297 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$c_j(\mathbf{z}^*) = \begin{bmatrix} Lib. & NDP & Con. & Grn. & BQ \\ E_igen1 & -0.0365 & 0.0021 & -0.0326 & 0.0085 & -0.1183 \\ E_igen2 & -0.0705 & -0.0361 & -0.0676 & -0.0092 & -0.1297 \end{bmatrix}$$

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a saddle point. Thus, when they choose a better position, it will still be on the mean of the decentralization axis as the second eigenvalue represents that axis.

We can also utilize the test of convergence coefficients to assess convergence to the vector of interest. Here, we see that all of the convergence coefficients, except for BQ's, are greater than one but less than w (which in this case is 2),⁴ thus we need to check the largest one to see if it indicates convergence to the mean vector. The largest convergence coefficient belongs to the Green Party and examination of the constituent portions of its $c(z^*)$ shows:

$$c_{GPC}(\mathbf{z}^*) = 1.379 + 0.5657$$

where 1.379 corresponds to the social axis. This means that the Green Party is not maximizing its vote share at the mean social position. These values indicate that the Green Party is also located at a saddle point when given the mean vector, just as the Hessian test did.

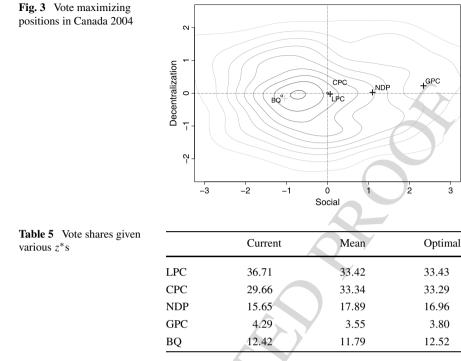
However, taken as they are, we do not know if these two tests actually match the vote maximizing tendencies of the parties. Thus, in order to give validity to the proposed tests, we need to use optimization methods to show that the vote maximizing positions for parties are not located on the mean vector. In a Gibbs sampling style of optimizer, we create an optimization method in which each party optimizes its vote share given the positions of the other parties. If we do this for each party in rotation beginning at some arbitrary starting values, the parties should eventually converge on the equilibrium set of positions where no party can do any better by moving given the positions of the other party. This method is necessary given that each party can potentially be optimizing over a different portion of the electorate. In this case, while the other four parties are attempting to optimize their respective vote shares over all of Canada, BQ is only trying to optimize its vote share among those voters in Quebec. Thus, this style of optimizer is necessary for finding the optimizing positions in Canada.

Figure 3 shows the vote optimizing positions for each party in Canada, which are as follows:

 $z_{opt}^* = \begin{bmatrix} Lib. & Con. & NDP & Grn. & BQ \\ S & 0.0524 & 0.0649 & 1.099 & 2.337 & -1.069 \\ D & -0.0259 & -0.0264 & 0.0266 & 0.2281 & -0.1290 \end{bmatrix}$

Fortunately for our measures, the vote optimizing positions echo what we were told
by the convergence coefficients: the NDP and the Green Party have incentive to
move away from the electoral mean while the other parties want to stay there. Given
that these two parties are of relatively low valence, their relocation has little effect on
the maximizing positions for the largest three parties. However, in accordance with

⁴It is interesting to note that the convergence coefficient need not be positive, as is the case with $c_{BQ}(z^*)$. This simple indicates a particularly strong desire to stay in the given position. A negative convergence coefficient indicates a quickly changing local maximum, meaning that a small departure from this position would result in a large decrease in vote share.



the equilibrium theory of proposed by Schofield (2007), the parties locate along the same axis, with distances away from their electoral means proportional to their respective perceived valence differences.

This begs the question, though, how much better can the parties do at these positions than they did at their current positions? Table 5 shows the vote shares in the sample for each party at their current positions, at the electoral mean, and at the vote maximizing positions determined by the optimization routine. These vote shares are predicted using the actual valences from each region (i.e. the aggregate valences plus the regional random effects).

This table strengthens our notion that the vector of means is not a LNE as the Green Party, the BQ, and the Liberals all do better when the Green Party and the NDP locate away from the mean. As the Green Party is one of the parties that is dis-satisfied with the electoral mean, it can choose to move to a more extreme position and do better. The NDP is forced to adapt and do worse than it would if the parties all located at their respective electoral means.

5 Conclusion

In this paper, we proposed a method for examining the vote maximizing positions of parties in electoral systems with parties that do not run in every region. When par-

1059 ties do not run in every region, different voters have different party bundles at the 060 polls and existing theories of valence and empirical methods for estimating valence 1061 are no longer appropriate. We proposed a more generalized notion of the conver-1062 gence coefficient which is able to handle any generalized vector of party positions 1063 and tell us whether or not these positions are a local Nash equilibrium for the given 1064 electoral system. We also proposed a new method for estimating the parameters nec-1065 essary to utilize the convergence coefficient that does not rely on the IIA assump-066 tion. Though methods of doing so already exist, the sheer amount of information 1067 1068 1069 structures. 1070 1071 1072 1073 1074

gained from the Varying Choice Set Logit makes it the ideal model to run when examining voting tendencies within complex electorates that have clear hierarchical Using these methods, we examined the 2004 Canadian elections. Using the new empirical methods, we found that even though it only ran in Quebec, a region that makes up around 25 percent of Canada's population, the Bloc Quebecois was the highest valence party in Canada in the 2004 elections. Using these empirical findings, we found that parties were not able to maximize their respective vote shares by locating at the joint electoral mean, which included BO locating at the mean of voters in Quebec and not at the join electoral mean. Rather, the lower valence parties were able to maximize vote shares by taking more extreme positions within the policy space. This finding is in direct contrast of widely accepted theories that political actors can always maximize their vote shares by taking positions at the electoral center.

1081 Given the accurate outcomes of these methods, there are a number of more com-1082 plex situations in which these methods can be used. First, this type of model is not limited to the two region case and can be applied to cases where there are numer-1083 ous "party bundles" which arise in a nation's electorate. A region, in this case, is 1084 equivalent to a party bundle; thus, a region can be a combination of many regions 1085 1086 (the case when a party runs in two out of three regions, for example). Similarly, in further uses of this model, it is possible to examine equilibria where parties have 1087 perfect information about each of the voters, meaning that parties know each voter's 1088 region, sociodemographic group, and ideal point. Given this information, new equi-1089 libria can be computed and differences can be examined. This further demonstrates 1090 1091 the general nature of the new definition of the convergence coefficient and its ability to handle an even wider variety of electorate types than previously. 1092

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Appendix

This appendix gives the algorithm for the Gibbs sampling.

```
1099
      model {
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1101
      for(i in 1:N) {
1102
      for(k in 1:K) {
1103
      v[i,k] <- alpha[k] + beta[1]*(d[(N*(k-1))+i]-d[i]) +</pre>
1104
```

Modeling Elections with Varying Party Bundles

```
m[region[i],k] + ed[region[i], education[i], k] +
     aq[region[i],education[i],age[i],k]
     expv[i,k] <- exp(v[i,k])</pre>
     pv[i,k] <- expv[i,k]/sum(expv[i,1:K])</pre>
     vote[i] ~ dcat(pv[i, 1:K])
      } }
     beta[1] \sim dnorm(0, taub[1])I(-5, 5)
     alpha[1] <- 0
     alpha[2] ~ dnorm(0,taua[2])
     alpha[3] ~ dnorm(0,taua[3])
     alpha[4] ~ dnorm(0,taua[4])
     alpha[5] \sim dnorm(0, taua[5])
     m[1,1] < - 0
     m[1,2] \sim dnorm(0,taum[1,2])
     m[1,3] \sim dnorm(0,taum[1,3])
1122
     m[1,4] \sim dnorm(0,taum[1,4])
1123
     m[1,5] <- -100000
1124
     m[2,1] < - 0
1125
     m[2,2] \sim dnorm(0,taum[2,2])
1126
     m[2,3] \sim dnorm(0,taum[2,3])
1127
     m[2,4] \sim dnorm(0,taum[2,4])
1128
     m[2,5] \sim dnorm(0,taum[2,5])
1129
      taub[1] ~ dgamma(.1,.1)I(.1,10)
1130
      taua[2] \sim dgamma(.1,.1)I(.1,10)
1131
      taua[3] ~ dgamma(.1,.1)I(.1,10)
1132
      taua[4] \sim dgamma(.1,.1)I(.1,10)
1133
      taua[5] ~ dgamma(.1,.1)I(.1,10)
1134
      taum[1,2]~dgamma(.1,.1)I(.1,10)
1135
      taum[1,3]~dgamma(.1,.1)I(.1,10)
1136
      taum[1,4] \sim dgamma(.1,.1)I(.1,10)
1137
      taum[2,2]~dgamma(.1,.1)I(.1,10)
1138
      taum[2,3] \sim dgamma(.1,.1)I(.1,10)
1139
      taum[2,4]~dgamma(.1,.1)I(.1,10)
1140
      taum[2,5]~dgamma(.1,.1)I(.1,10)
1141
      for(f in 1:e) {
1142
     ed[1,f,5] <- -10000
1143
      }
1144
1145
      for(f in 1:e){
1146
     for(z in 1:4) {
1147
     ed[1, f, z] \sim dnorm(0, taued[1, f, z])
1148
      taued[1,f,z] ~ dgamma(.01,.01)I(.01,10)
1149
      } }
1150
```

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```

```
for(f in 1:e){
      for(z in 1:5) {
      ed[2,f,z] \sim dnorm(0,taued[2,f,z])
      taued[2,f,z] ~ dgamma(.01,.01)I(.01,10)
      } }
      for(f in 1:e){
      for(w in 1:a) {
      ag[1,f,w,5] <- -10000
      } }
      for(f in 1:e){
      for(z in 1:4) {
      for(w in 1:a){
      ag[1, f, w, z] \sim dnorm(0, tauag[1, f, w, z])
      tauag[1, f, w, z] \sim dgamma(.01, .01)I(.01, 10)
      } } }
      for(f in 1:e){
      for(z in 1:5) {
      for(w in 1:a) {
      ag[2,f,w,z] \sim dnorm(0,tauag[2,f,w,z])
      tauag[2,f,w,z] ~ dgamma(.01,.01)I(.01,10)
      } } }
      for(f in 1:e){
1175
      for(z in 1:4) {
1176
      for(w in 1:a) {
                                      + m[1,z] + ed[1,f,z] + ag[1,f,w,z]
      tot[1,f,w,z] <- alpha[z]</pre>
1177
      1178
1179
      for(f in 1:e) {
1180
      for(z in 1:5) {
1181
      for(w in 1:a) {
1182
      tot[2, f, w, z] < - alpha[z] + m[2, z] + ed[2, f, z] + ag[2, f, w, z]
1183
      } } }
1184
      }
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         Press, Ann Arbor
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Spatial Model of Elections in Turkey: Tracing Changes in the Party System in the 2000s

Norman Schofield and Betul Demirkaya

1 Introduction

17 During the first decade of the 21st century, electoral politics in Turkey underwent 18 significant changes in terms of both the number and the ideological positions of 19 political parties. The 1990s were marked by a historically high degree of fragmen-20 tation with the effective number of parties rising to 4.3 in 1995 elections and 4.8 21 in 1999 elections (Ozbudun 2000; Kalaycioglu 2008). This was partly due to a de-22 crease in the vote share of the center-right and center-left parties and a concurrent 23 rise in the vote share of the nationalist and Islamist parties. The 1999 elections 24 resulted in a parliament with five parties, each with seat shares ranging between 25 15 % and 25 %.¹ A coalition government was formed by the center-left Democratic 26 Left Party (DSP), the Nationalist Action Party (MHP) and the center-right Mother-27 land Party (ANAP). The 2001 financial crisis was followed by an early election in 28 2002, in which none of the parties from the previous parliament were able to pass 29 the electoral threshold.² The new parliament was formed by the members of the 30 Justice and Development Party (AKP)—a new conservative party founded by the 31 former members of Islamist parties—and the Republican People's Party (CHP)— 32

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45 e-mail: betul.demirkaya@wustl.edu

¹See Tables 1 and 2 for vote and seat shares of parties in the last four elections. 35

³⁶ ²According to the electoral law of 1983, a political party needs to win at least 10 % of the national 37 vote in order to win seats in the parliament.

³⁸ N. Schofield (⊠)

³⁹ Weidenbaum Center, Washington University in St. Louis, Seigle Hall, Campus Box 1027,

⁴⁰ One Brookings Drive, St. Louis, MO 63130-4899, USA

e-mail: schofield.norman@gmail.com 41

⁴²

B. Demirkava 43

Center in Political Economy, Washington University in Saint Louis, 1 Brookings Drive,

⁴⁴ Saint Louis, MO 63130, USA

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Table 1 Vote shares (%)—1999–2011. Source: www.ysk.gov.tr; www.resmigazete.gov.tr

48	Party name	Vote shares						
49			1999	2002	2007	2011		
50								
51	Justice and Development Party	AKP	—	34.28	46.58	49.80		
52	Republican People's Party	CHP	8.71	19.39	20.88	25.98		
53	Nationalist Action Party	MHP	17.98	8.36	14.27	13.02		
54	Felicity Party	SP ^a	-	2.49	2.34	1.26		
55	Virtue Party	FP	15.41	-	-	÷ í		
56	Democrat Party	DP		-	5.42 ^b	0.65		
57	Democratic Left Party	DSP	22.19	1.22	_c	0.25		
58 59	True Path Party	DYP	12.01	9.54		0.15		
60	Motherland Party	ANAP	13.22	5.13	_d	-		
61	Genc Party	GP	-	7.25	3.04	-		
62	People's Democracy Party	HADEP	4.75		7_			
63	Democratic People Party	DEHAP ^e	-	6.22	_	_		
64	Independents		0.87	1.00	5.24 ^f	6.59 ^g		
65	Others		4.86	5.13	2.25	2.29		
66 67	Total		100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00		
68	Turnout		87.09	79.14	84.25	83.16		

69 ^aFelicity Party is the successor to Virtue Party, which was banned by the Constitutional Court

^bDYP changed its name to Democrat Party in a failed attempt to merge with ANAP 70

^cThe candidates of DSP entered the elections in the CHP lists 71

^dANAP withdrew from elections and asked their supporters to vote for DP 72

^eDemocratic People Party is the successor to People's Democracy Party, which was banned by the 73 Constitutional Court

74 ^fMajority of independent candidates are supported by Democratic Society Party (DTP), which is 75 the successor to DEHAP

^gMajority of independent candidates are supported by Democratic Society Party (DTP), which is 76 the successor to DEHAP 77

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79 a party with a strong emphasis on a secularist agenda. In the 2007 elections, AKP consolidated their power by receiving 46.6 % of the votes while CHP increased 80 81 their share of the vote by only 1.5 percentage points to 20.9 %. In addition, the Nationalist Action Party (MHP) and independent candidates supported by the pro-82 Kurdish Democratic Society Party (DTP) were able to win seats in the 2007 elec-83 84 tions. 85

The changes in electoral politics brought about several important questions: What 86 are the main issues that shape political debate? How can we describe the position 87 of AKP and other parties on issues that are relevant for voters? How can we explain the voters' preferences in this new electoral landscape? The characterization 88 89 of political parties and voters along a left-right continuum has been widely-used and helpful in making comparisons across political systems. However, the reduction of 90 91 political views to a single dimension may conceal the diversity of issues that may 92