Management of Consumers in Political Area:
Spatial Analysis on Nonvoting Speed and National Culture Values

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Abstract: The present study focused on a spatial analysis based on the non-voting values and the dimensions of power distances and uncertainty avoidance in the national culture. The main objective was the multidimensional analysis, clustering and graphical analysis of the countries based on the speed, velocity and cultural dimensions of nonvoting. The results for five clusters were analyzed and discussed.

Keywords: spatial analysis, non-voting values, uncertainty avoidance, power distance

Introduction

The election process is a legal and political way to put into power the cadres and ideology supported by the majority of people. In this context, the behaviors and factors related to participation in elections constitute an important area of research in political science (Bourbeau and Scruggs, 2007). Although voting is only a small part of political participation, it has an important place in contemporary political science, democratic politics and political marketing. Voting behavior is the subject of numerous studies in this area (Roussias, 2010). Of the various political participation processes, voting in elections, the easily and equally exercised right of everybody in democratic systems, is the most frequently enacted social citizenship behavior. Recent studies have revealed unstable and often declining levels of voter turnout at elections in many developed and developing countries. according to Franklin (2004), the voting behavior of a person is shaped during his or her first voting experience. Accordingly, people who have reason to vote in their first election are arguably likely to continue this behavior in future elections (Denny and Doyle, 2005). Similarly, Plutzer (2002) claims that voting habits should be acquired at early ages and that those who gain this habit are most likely to continue at more advanced ages. According to the developmental theory of turnout, voting behavior is the function of inertia, and the first electoral experience of a person can be a determining factor for future voting behavior (Plutzer, 2002).

Blais and Young (1999), who modeled the voting process according to electors' voting behavior, state that voting behavior is an unreflective and habitual action. Nonvoting young people are classified into five groups according to their motivations towards politics and voting. The first group is the 'confident and convinced' group which has features similar to Sheerin's (2007) inconvenienced group. The second group, the tentative triers, lack self-confidence in the area of politics and believe that they would be unable to succeed. The 'living for the weekend' group believes that voting is not very important. For the 'politically disinterested' group, voting is a deeply entrenched behavior, and they feel that voting does not make a difference in their lives. The distrustful and disillusioned group has attitudes similar to Sheerin's (2007) 'principled non-voters'. There is a wide range of reasons for nonvoting behaviors, such as being unable to find a political party that represents one's ideology, being discontent about the current political atmosphere and enraged with politicians, there being nobody among the political candidates worth supporting, a lack of confidence in political parties and those who hold power, doubts about the legacy of the government, the belief that an individual is being segregated and the belief that other members of the system are favored. This attitude is known as 'active nonparticipation', as the nonparticipants are knowledgable and highly aware of the events taking place around them. The purpose of this article to do a spatial analysis based on nonvoting and national culture values. Article was designed as two section. First, nonvoting behavior and its relationship with national culture was given and then Multidimensional analysis was conducted on these factors.

Literature Review

Nonvoting Behavior

Numerous studies have focused on the reasons for the nonvoting of electors, the factors these individuals take into account when casting their votes and those motivating them to vote (Roussias, 2010; Kohler, Rose, 2010). The institutional, contextual and socio-political factors influencing the process of voting have emerged through investigating the topic at an aggregate level. Franklin (2004) claimed that the low voting ratios may stem from the features of elections, not the

electors. Competitiveness creates an important effect in this respect. A person may opt to not use his or her vote when she/he believes that her/his party will be victorious regardless of his or her vote. However, when competition is high and a person thinks that one vote may cause a difference, the person may decide to use her/his vote (Hollander, 2009). Closely fought elections also have an important effect on turnout (Blais, 2006; Geys, 2006). The prediction of the winner of an election in a certain region at a certain time may cause a low election turnout, which may apply to future elections (Abramson et al., 2007). According to Fowler and Kam (2007) who studied the turnout phenomenon, the voting or nonvoting for a governing party certain to win and the belief that the party an individual supports has very little chance to win an election may cause low turnout. This conceptualization may be the result of electors favoring their groups over others. The perception of nonvoters giving support to rival parties was also investigated (Koudenburg et al., 2011).

Donald (2010) studied principled-nonvoters and found that this group has a deep belief that there are great limitations to its representation and participation in traditional politics. Elections conducted under proportional representation were found to have a higher turnout than the other systems (Blais, 2006; Geys, 2006). The ease of voting is another factor that affects this process (Franklin, 2002). There is also a negative correlation between the turnout and the frequency of the elections (Franklin, 2004).The theories mentioned above based on the characteristics of the people rather than features of the elections constitute a major part of voting and election theories today. Individuality-based voting behavior theories are separated into three groups: mobilization, resource and cognitive involvement theories. Mobilization theory claims that the interest of a person towards non governmental organizations has a very large effect on his or her voting behavior (Clarke et al., 2004), because the members of groups and organizations are considered easier to mobilize and, therefore, more likely to vote. Many organizations inform their members about the importance of voting (Gray & Caul, 2000). Political participation may be increased by encouraging people to join this organization (Boeckman and Tyler, 2002). These organizations try to create awareness among these individuals about the roles of political parties, media and various groups in politics (Franklin, 2002). At this point, the creation of a motivating message that covers all electors is of great importance (Nickerson, 2006). Political messages create obvious awareness (Dermody and Scullion, 2005). It was concluded that the concept of political value has an important impact on voting

behavior (Leimgruber, 2011) and has a deterministic value on the ways political parties' target electors (Rohrschneider, 2002). Similarly, Lloyd (2005) states that a political product can be examined from ideological and political points of view. Here, the information generation, information dissemination, member participation and consistent external communication are important (Ormrod, 2005).

The social motivation of electors is a rational political behavior from a social point of view that can be produced by the combination of the media and individual factors of the psychological domain (Edlin et al., 2007). It has been claimed that the level of awareness between voters and non-voters can be examined with regards to knowledge and motivation (Jones and Dawson, 2008). This diagnosis is supported by studies evaluating cognitive involvement and resource theories. In the context of socialization the political socialization concept is to be evaluated. Political socialization is the process of becoming acquainted with political symbols, developing attitudes towards certain people and affiliating with a political organization starting in early childhood and continuing to adulthood (Pammett and LeDuc, 2003). In other words, political socialization is the process of transporting the political culture to future generations (Gimpel et al., 2003). The process of basic socialization is based on the assumption that the attitudes acquired during early childhood remains unchanged with time (Sheerin, 2007). This means that voting and nonvoting attitudes become permanent with time (Gerber et al., 2003).

Basic political socialization agents, such as family, friends, school and the media, become increasingly important (Owen, 2008). In addition to these four important factors, religious and military organizations, the working place and social groups play important roles in this process (Achterberg and Houtman, 2006). A decrease in political participation in recent years has clearly shown that the process of political socialization needs to be investigated in detail (Hooghe &Stolle, 2004). Anderson and Goodyear (2008) validated that socialization agents have a profound effect on the voting behavior of young people in the future. Particularly, it was observed that the voting behavior of families has a strong influence on the voting behavior and the political values of young people (Kelly, 2006). The psychological theories related to electors' behavior, such as political interest, partisan realignment, apathy, alienation and efficacy, are used to explain the changes in electors' behavior and political participation (Wattenburg, 2002). In a study on voting behavior, nonvoters were classified as politically ignorant

nonvoters who do not follow any political campaign, indifferent nonvoters who have a sound knowledge about the candidate and see no difference between them, selectively aware nonvoters who know only one candidate, dissatisfied nonvoters who have a sound knowledge about the campaign and develop their own ideology and conditionally inactive nonvoters who have good knowledge about the campaigns but are not satisfied with any of the candidates due to their promises about the issue of unemployment (Ragsdale and Rusk, 1993).

Political apathy is understood as ambivalence toward politics, with no strong feelings for or against politicians or issues (Russell et al. 2002, p. 21). As expected, political apathy has a negative effect on political actions (Bynner and Ashford, 1994). Political knowledge and political interest are two of the most important determinants of voting behavior (Karp and Banducci, 2008). The increasing knowledge and information families give to young people are the tools they use to analyze the political structure and political candidates (Dalton, 2002). For principled nonvoters, political interest constitutes the most important determinant of election turnout and has a mediating role between the voting process and education (Elklit et al., 2005).

Efficacy is another factor in the psychological model in determining electors' behavior (Sheerin, 2007). Political efficacy was defined as the feeling that individual political action does have, or can have, an impact upon the political process (Campbell et al., 1960, p. 187). In this respect, Sheerin (2007) claims that the greater the efficacy, the greater the political turnout. Some theories claim that an interactive structure with an efficient flow of information will increase participation (Tedesco, 2007). Similarly, Zhong and Chen (2002) proved that internal efficacy, democratic orientation, the reaction against local degradations and public affairs and life satisfaction are very important in increasing political turnout. The studies evaluating cognitive involvement emphasize factors such as political interest and knowledge, legitimacy, the support of the regime and satisfaction with the democratic system as having a positive effect on the voting tendency of individuals (Lassen, 2005). In addition, it was noted that an increase in electors in the voting process is expected to cause an accumulation of subjective information and result in the establishment of confidence (Karp and Banducci, 2008).

Alienation, which refers to a citizen's negative feelings toward politics, such as dislike or distrust of politicians, has also been found to affect turnout, with alienated citizens less likely to vote (Russell et al., 2002, p. 85-86). Southwell (2008) noted that the factors of powerlessness, meaninglessness and cynicism affect the process. He claimed that powerlessness and meaninglessness have a negative effect on voting behavior, whereas the feeling of cynicism has a positive effect. In other words, when people think that there is no meaning in the game and feel disenchanted and powerless against the system, they tend to refrain from voting.

Some studies claim that nonvoting is a form of protest (Brady and Kaplan, 2001). Passive nonparticipation is regarded as isolation from society rather than a reaction to something because the person exerts no effort to vote whatsoever. It seems important to mention social integration at this point, which shows that people who regard themselves as an integral part of society show interest in the governing of people and are anxious about the solutions to social problems.

Political mobilization can be seen as a type of social integration. People who are well integrated with society and adapt to its norms will act according to them. Voting in elections is one of these norms. Voting is a duty incumbent upon every citizen. At higher levels, the national identity can be regarded as the single connection between political involvement and national ties (Huddy and Khatib, 2007). In societies with more intimate relations, turnout is very high and explicit and implicit attitudes can effectively be used to predict the voting behavior of people (Friese et al., 2012). The level of the social integration is determined by several psychological and socio economic factors. The most important psychological factor is the acceptance of the norm of civic duties. According to individual mobilization theory, the nonvoting behavior of people can be explained by the weak attachment of people to civic duty norms (Rose, 2004) and weak social integration. At this point, it is necessary for everyone to accept the mentality that voting is a moral responsibility. Further aspects relate to economic and social marginality, which cannot be separated from political marginality (Bennulf & Hedberg, 1999). Moreover, Dermody et al. (2010) measured the effect of confidence and negative thinking on voting behavior by truct, cynicism and efficacy. In this context, Print, Saha & Edwards (2004) argued that political confidence affects the political attitude and voting behavior of the majority of people. Particularly young people were very skeptical about the performance of political institutions, political leaders and general politics. It is obvious that an increase in turnout in elections is highly dependent on the establishment of just and fair elections (Birch, 2003). In this context, political confidence, economic

performance and political performance are of great importance (Baslevent et al., 2005).

There are great differences between voting and nonvoting individuals with regard to economic and noneconomic subjects (Shaffer, 1982). For instance, the tone of voice of a candidate has a profound effect on voters (Tigue et al., 2012). Anxiety against candidates plays an important role in political preference (Birch, 2003). Taxes, social programs, crime and delinquency issues and occupation possibilities also exert a strong influence on the voting process (Belanger and Meguid, 2008). Rational choice theory regards potential electors' as rational self-interested consumers and assumes that they approach the voting process with a cost-benefit analysis (Sheerin, 2007). The election turnout studies related to rational choice theory showed that people make a kind of cost/benefit analysis in both, economic and psychological terms, before elections. If the cost of casting a vote turns out to be higher than the benefit expected from it, then the tendency to not vote increases. By contrast, it was observed that electors make decisions both on a rational choice basis (Savigny, 2003) and through irrational-emotional judgment processes (Dean and Croft, 2009).

The decision-making process is largely influenced by the personal values of the electors (Baslevent and Kirmanoğlu, 2008). The opinions of Inglehart on postmaterialism support this theory; Inglehart (2008) studied the basic economic, social and political problems that emerged during the post-World War II era with postmaterialist theory. The prioritization of values shifted as a result of economic stability and social development problems. Most people started to see the process of voting as a tool of political participation as a result of the change in the prioritization of values. Most people may be interested in political activities but may not participate in politics (Milan, 2005). Similarly, Dalton (2002) found that electors are issue focused rather than politically oriented. The political parties in the world begin to embrace the marketing concept to a higher extent (Ediraras et al., 2013). The body of literature on political marketing has expanded in last years (Henneberg, 2004). Maarek (1995, p. 15) stated that political marketing is ''the use of online and offline advertising, marketing and promotion techniques to influence individual voters to cast their vote in favour of a specific political party or candidate''.

Political marketing consists of three elements: the political product, political organization and political market; however, it is not free from the other social elements of politics (Butler and Collins, 1996). Nielsen and Larsen (2014) demonstrate that political brand value (PBV) has an effect on voting behavior. If we consider the process of voting as the framework of an exchange mechanism that is the base of the political marketing process - analogous to marketing-, then voting can be regarded as a transaction that creates a relation that is absent for nonvoters (Bannon, 2005). In addition, it needs a constitutionalized structure (Henneberg, 2004) and an adaptation process (Henneberg and O'shaughnessy, 2007) between political science and marketing theory and especially, focusing to a frame for political parties adapting this transformation in this relationship context is necessary (Johansen, 2005). Regardless of the degree to which politics has a unique structure, political processes have to consider changes in the concept of marketing, placing it somewhere above elections (Lees-Marshment, 2003; Butler, Harris, 2009). In a way, this concept may be regarded as a market-oriented political party model (Lees-Marshment, 2006).

Impact of National-Cultural Values

Although the national culture is addressed with a broad perspective, the cultural models of Hofstede (2001), Schwartz (1994), Rokeach (1973) and Triandis (1994) are more dominant in the literature. National cultures have an impact on the voting behavior of individuals. It is known that specific social cleavages such as certain social class and gender affect voting behavior (Brooks et al., 2006; Van Der Waal et al., 2007; Layman et al., 1997), as well as economical elements have an impact on the electoral behavior of the individuals (Powell and Whitten, 1993). It can be considered that the elements in question reflect cultural values in a sense. It was stated that since the national cultures operate within a system of values, personal values also influence the political values, and these values are the triggers of political values (Schwartz et al., 2010; Schwartz et al., 2014). Thus, it was stated that the fact that party leaders could construct a model based on the value priorities of the public is important (Caprar et al., 2006, p. 2-5). Therefore, it was argued that the values of individuals are in harmony with political values (Dalton, 2000) and that they are influenced by the elements of classical liberalism and economic egalitarianism (Barnea and Schwartz, 1998) and moral traditionalism (De Koster and Van der Waal, 2007).

In this context, the power distance and uncertainty avoidance elements of Hofstede's national culture models are taken into consideration in the study based on the premise that the structure of the natural culture is based on values values. Power that is considered within the self-enhancement as a value in the context of political values (Piurko et al., 2011) is the potential to direct other individuals to the desired direction (Mulder,

1977). The basis of this theory lies in the belief that use of power provides satisfaction to the person using it. It is always desirable to have power since the use of power is addictive for the individual and the individual will endeavor to fulfill this desire (Pope, 2003). Power distance is the degree to which individuals in a society accept the unequal distribution of power in that society (Lim, 2001: 211). Thus, the power distance is the degree of inequality between the powers that individuals possess. Therefore, the power distance could be explained as the amount of differences in the right to use power between the different hierarchical groups. Power is central in the institutions of a society where the power distance is high, and members obey orders and expectations. As a result, the organizational structure is based on hierarchy, and the relationship between individuals is determined by the administration. The fact that the executives in these organizations have privileged authority is a clear indicator of status that increases their authority (Sims, 1999) and the managers are perceived as the ideal boss, a "helpful autocrat" or a "good father" by their subordinates. Also, in these institutions where the hierarchical distance is high, individuals may abstain from expressing their disagreements with the opinions of the managers (Singh, 1990). In other words, as the boss is clearly known, the statements of the boss have the weight of the law. Norms based on social equality dominate in organizations in societies with a low power distance, and political equality is encouraged among individuals. On the other hand, the degree of centralization in organizations with low power distances is low (Hofstede, 2001), and the statues of the superiors and subordinates are considered equal. In organizations with low power distances, norms based on social equality dominate and political equality is encouraged among individuals (Rodrigues, 1998). Participatory, consultative decision-making processes and leadership styles are accepted and privilages and status symbols are not preferred (Mellahi and Guermat, 2003).

In the context of political ideology, uncertainty is considered as a factor (Jost and Amodio, 2012). It was stated that this element operates with a certain ideological structure (Jost et al., 2007) and is examined as an ideological motive (Jost et al., 2003). This dimension of culture refers to the extent to which members in a society and culture feel threatened by uncertain and unknown situations and avoid uncertainties (Jackson, 2001). Avoidance of uncertainty is an effort by individuals who are the members of a society to avoid strict forms of behavior within the framework of absolute truth due to their concerns about commonly unstructured, unclear, and unpredictable situations (Lim, 2003). In societies where the avoidance of uncertainty is high, individuals often look for stability, avoid uncertain, unclear, informal, suspicious and risky situations and they want to secure themselves by adhering strictly to authority, hierarchy, and written and formal rules. Thus, individuals in these societies are not very tolerant towards differences, fluctuations and changes in thoughts and behavior. On the other hand, in societies where the avoidance of uncertainty is low, individuals prefer to be free and autonomous, to take risks, and are open to innovation and change (Singh, 1990). Hofstede (2001) suggested that individuals in communities with a high level of avoidance of uncertainty prefer to be governed in an organizational order since they cannot easily perceive uncertain and ambiguous situations. For people who live in these societies, laws and regulations are an emotional need, and often personal behavior is structured with this approach. In organizations in a society where the avoidance of uncertainty is low, formal rules are structured as a necessity rather than as a requirement. In these societies, individuals often solve their problems without the need for formal rules. Individuals have a low autonomy, tolerate uncertain and ambiguous situations, work hard when necessary, and the organizational structuralism is low. Avoidance of uncertainty is examined based on the effect of voting/nonvoting (Tollison and Willett, 1973) on the candidates (Calvert, 1985; Feddersen, 2004) and evaluated based on three factors in the framework of votes (Palfrey and Rosenthal, 1985, p. 62): The first group is non-voter, the second group is not knowing whether others would vote or not, and the last group is having no idea about the votes of others.

Methodology

Purpose

An analysis was conducted on 11 Asian countries using a multidimensional scale, and taking into account the values of power distance and uncertainty avoidance national culture models, which are considered to have an effect on speed, velocity in the context of the nonvoting behavior and national culture.

Method

In the literature, there are MDS analyses conducted on elections (Dow, 2001; Carkoglu and Hinich, 2006), political parties (Weisberg and Tanaka, 2001), politicians (Faust et al., 2002), countries (Bornschier, 2010), party-politics relations (Linhart and Shikano, 2009. The present study includes a spatial analysis of the nonvoting rates and power distance and uncertainty avoidance values for 11 Asian countries during parliamentary-election periods. The research is conducted in two stages. Initially, the data were collected and then the IBM

SPSS V 23.0 statistical software was used to apply ALSCAL technique on the data.

Measures

Measures provides three basic ratio regarding nonvoting speed, velocity inspired from formulas in physics for related subjects. These are at below.

-*Speed* (how fast an nonvoting is moving) Nonvoting speed is the division of the total of the nonvoting rates in a country in each election period by the number of years from the first election to the last election in the country.

Ave speed = distance / time = v = d/t

-*Velocity* (the rate at which nonvoting changes its position): The difference between the last voting rate in a country and the nonvoting rate in the first election divided by the number of years from the first election to the last election in the country.

Ave velocity = displacement / time = v = d/t

- *National Culture*: Power distance and uncertainty values determined by Hofstede for each country based on the national culture models are accepted (Hofstede, 2001). The unit values were quantities. In the present study they were accepted as ratios.

Next, it was multiplied the speed and velocity values by power distance and uncertainty avoidance values so we calculated the weighted values and then we got the average of these values.

Weighted Average Non-voting Speed Data
= *((Speed*Power distance)+(Speed*Uncertainty avoidance))/2*
Weighted Average Non-voting velocity Data
= *((Velocity *Power distance)+(Velocity*Uncertainty avoidance))/2*

Dataset

As a result of the calculations conducted based on the measurements, the data for 12 countries are determined as follows:

Table 1. Data for analysis

	Speed	Velocity	Power distance	Uncertainty avoidance	Weighted Speed	Weighted Velocity
Bangladesh	0,00388	0,00388	0,8	0,6	0,5432	0,5432
India	-0,00325	-0,00175	0,77	0,4	-0,38025	-0,20475
Indonesia	0,01890	0,01550	0,78	0,48	2,3814	1,953
Japan	0,00718	0,00529	0,54	0,92	1,04828	0,77234
Malaysia	-0,01587	-0,04012	1	0,36	-2,15832	-5,45632
Philippines	0,00015	-0,00876	0,94	0,44	0,0207	-1,20888
Singapore	0,00041	0,001583	0,74	0,08	0,03362	0,129806
Sri Lanka	-0,01564	0,00514	0,8	0,45	-1,955	0,6425
Taiwan	0,00200	0,00570	0,58	0,69	0,254	0,7239
Thailand	-0,00752	0,00657	0,64	0,64	-0,96256	0,84096
Vietnam	-0,00033	-0,03466	0,7	0,3	-0,033	-3,466

Multidimensional Analysis

MDS is focused on clustering analysis in the broad sense, and in the narrow sense, of the dissimilarity data (De Leeuw and Heiser, 1982, p. 285). In MDS implementation, the proximity data pairs contain objects of dissimilarity, the main purpose of which is to provide a spatial location for the objects based on the dissimilarity (Buja et al., 2008, p.2). Hence, the focus is on the dissimilarity measure for data object cluster (Kruskal and Wish, 1978). It could be specified as a subjective or data matrix. It is a configuration of points in the space and includes metric and non-metric methods (Cox and Cox, 2008, p.316). Metric MDS is the process of transforming the distance matrix to distance coordinates (Abdi, 2007, p.1). Metric MDS is used based on the definition of dissimilarity (Taguchi and Oono, 2005, p.731) and focuses on the exact estimation of the dissimilarity of each object cluster, and requires a ratio level measurement (Tsogo et al., 2000, p. 307). In the present study stress non-metric and weightless method was preferred. When conducting the MDS, initially the stimuli (countries) and proximity measure were selected (dissimilarity), rotation was provided, distances were calculated and dimensioning was provided (Davison and Sireci, 2000, p.330-340). A two-dimensional analysis was performed based on dissimilarity. The data are given in ratios.

Euclidean distance was used since it is the most widely used distance scale (Takane et al., 2009, p.221). ALSCAL (Alternating Least Squares Scaling) procedure was performed using SPSS 23 software. According to ALSCAL procedure, symmetric ordinal data type and 2-D solution were preferred. The utilized statistical indices were Stress, S-stress, and RSQ values. If the stress value is lower than 0.1, it is perfect and a value of 0.15 and over is unacceptable (Kruskal & Wish, 1978). In MDS analysis, as the dimensionality increases, the stress value decreases, which makes it easier to place the objects in a specific space (Sturrock and Rocha, 2000, p.54). In the study, it was found that

the S-Stress was 0.001, the RSQ value was 0.999, and the stress value was 0.017. Therefore, the 2-dimensional solution, accounting for 99% of the variance, was retained as the most appropriate. Figure 1 presents the solution graphically. This suggests that 2D can be accepted based on the fitness indices. It could be observed in Figure 1 that the units (20 countries) are in a linear relationship with the distances and disparities related to the MDS Analysis. Coordinates related to the determined dimensions after it was identified that distances and differences are in a linear relationship based on the number of dimensions were obtained and presented in Table 2 below.
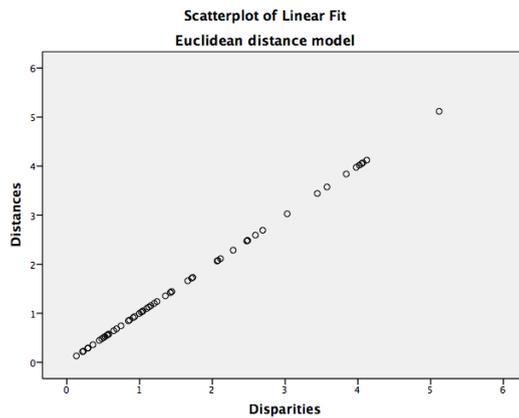

Figure 1. Distances – Disparities Fit

Table 2. Stimulus listing and MDS Coordinates

		Dimension 1	Dimension 2
1	Bangladesh	.6723	-.1377
2	India	.0620	.1965
3	Indonesia	1.8442	-.8206
4	Japan	.9086	-.3605
5	Malaysia	-3.1780	-.0061
6	Philippines	-.3930	-.2436
7	Singapore	.3352	.0466
8	Sri Lanka	.1714	1.2378
9	Taiwan	.7060	.0591
10	Thailand	.4993	.7442
11	Vietnam	-1.6278	-.7157

When the coordinates obtained for the two-dimensional units (countries) in Table 2 are placed in the coordinate system, Figure 1 that shows the relations between the units (countries) on the two-dimensional space is obtained. As can be seen, as a result of the MDS analysis, the dimensions are in the form of high PD-UNA - low mobility and low PD-UNA - high mobility and seven country clusters were identified.
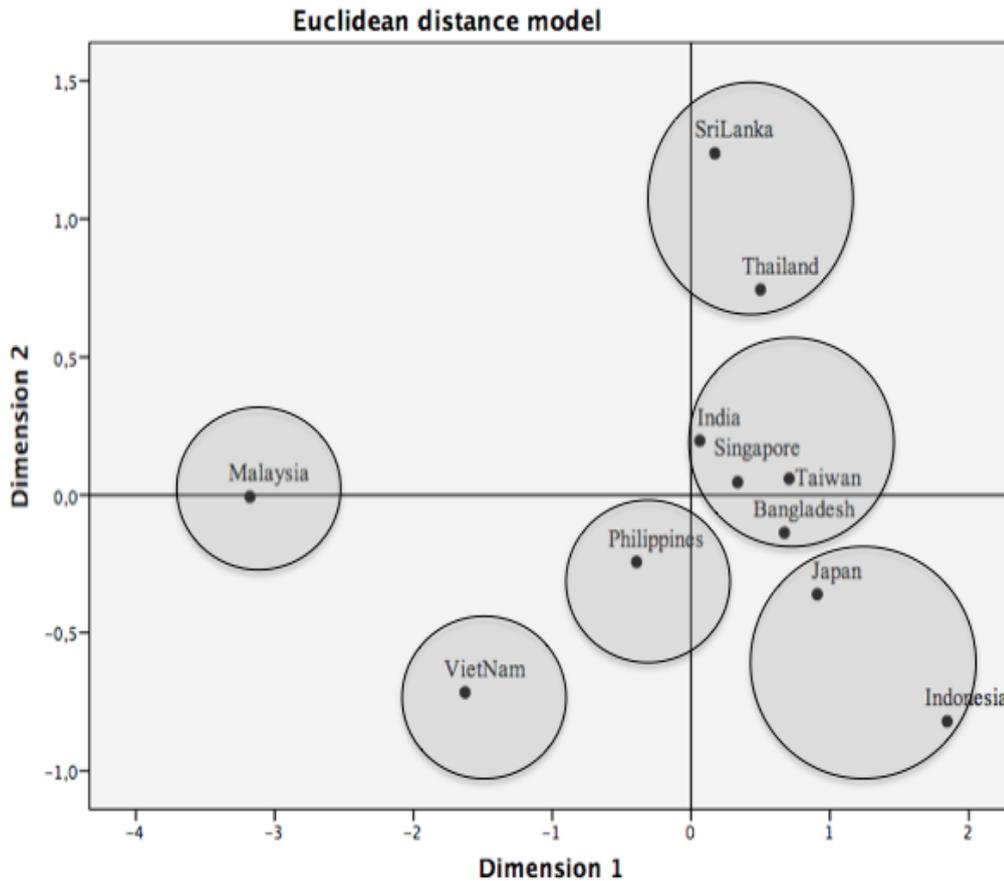
Figure 2. MDS Graphic

It was observed that the data averages of the countries in the first cluster (Malaysia) had a weighted negative speed and velocity with high PD and low UA in first cell of the grid. In the second cluster (Vietnam) had a weighted negative speed and velocity with high PD and low UA and Philippines had positive low nonvoting speed and negative nonvoting velocity with very high PD and moderate UA values, these are in 3th cell. The data for the fourth cluster countries (Sri Lanka and Thailand) demonstrated negative speed and positive velocity nonvoting value and moderately high PD and UA. At the same time that the countries in the fiveth group (India, Singapore and Taiwan) have high PD and low UA values, it is seen that the speed rate of non-voting is moderate. It was observed that the countries in the sixth group (Bangladesh and Japan) had very low PD and UA values and the speed of non-votingwas moderate and the speed and momentum were very low.

Discussion

The present study focused on a spatial analysis based on the non-voting values and the dimensions of power distances and uncertainty avoidance in the national culture. The main objective was the multidimensional analysis, clustering and graphical

analysis of the countries based on the speed, velocity and cultural dimensions of nonvoting. Non-voting includes a process that functions with precursors such as economic, sociological, party and individual preferences with respect to political participation. The reasons for the emphasis on the nonvoting speed and velocity of the countries over the years are the facts that the abovementioned precursors are reflected in the voter behavior and change. At the end of the multi-dimensional analysis, it could be stated that seven clusters were identified within the context of the two dimensions. Presence of the countries within the clusters depends on the process in the similarity-dissimilarity matrix based on the values. It could be argued that certain factors were the basis of the nonvoting speed and the focus on the national culture. The belief that change would precede all else, the interaction between political parties and the electorate, the attitudes towards the political leaders are the factors that trigger vote speed and velocity and determine the vote values during the election periods and the power distance and uncertainty avoidance would naturally affect voter preferences. The type of balance between the voting and nonvoting behavior of the electorate may affect the election results and the public

policies depending on whether it represents the power of the electorate (Gersen, 2010; Beryy and Gersen, 2011). Similarly, generation, personal reactions, alternatives, and media affect the above as well. Based on the premise that voting functions in conjunction with political knowledge and political awareness (Milner, 2002), Berry and Gersen (2010) investigated the problem of whether the increase of the voting ratio would cause any changes in the election results or the public policies. If we look at the bonds between the mass political behavior of the citizens and public policy, it may affect the people in a way to refrain from the political participation, public policies, political consciousness and the beliefs of the citizens, make the government focus on social problems, urge the government for the implementation of mass participation processes, encourage the people to make extra demands and particularly effect their bonds with the political parties or the groups (Mettler and Soss, 2004, pp.60-64). This situation would inevitably be reflected on nonvoting speed. The people who advocate this opinion claim that the voting section and nonvoting section of the society may have entirely different political ideologies (Leighley and Nagler, 2009). The politicians which represent the choices of people about public policies are supposed to find solutions for these problems (Wlezien, 2004). Studies demonstrated that individuals are much more willing to obey the social norms when the society is aware of its significance (Kallgren, Reno, and Cialdini, 2000; Cialdini and Goldstein 2004). Again, as an effect of the nonvoting of the electorate and the culture, the people who do not vote in the elections have the tendency of reflecting the previous voting ratios in an exaggerated manner (Gerber et al., 2008). Starting from that point, the implementation of social policies emphasizing the social benefits and make the people feel the social pressure should be proposed for the increase of their participation of the political process. One of the main premises of the study was to investigate the interactions between the speed, velocity of nonvoting and the PD and UA. MDS analysis results demonstrated that nonvoting speed, velocity values were similar in certain country clusters, PD and UA ratios were different. The study utilized certain formulations per its due to its construct. Although these were not considered to be common, however it was considered that they would provide a different perspective. It can be recommended that analyses based on the data of countries from different continents could be conducted in future studies.

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