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“TRUMP”—WHAT DOES the NAME SIGNIFY? or, PROTOFASCISM and the ALT-RIGHT

Three Contradictions of the Present Conjunctionure

Matthew Flisfeder

Abstract This article examines the rise of the alt-right and Donald Trump’s successful campaign for president of the United States in the context of three overlapping contradictions: that of subversion in postmodern culture and politics, that between the democratic and commercial logics of the media, and that of the failure of the Left in the wake of the 2008 financial crisis. The article looks at the rise of “Trumpism” and the new brand of white nationalist and misogynistic culture of the so-called alt-right in its historical context to show how it is consistent with but also distinguished from previous right-wing ideologies. More generally, the three contradictions presented here are proposed as explanations for understanding the mainstreaming of the alt-right in contemporary politics and culture.

Keywords alt-right, mass media, postmodernism, social media, Donald Trump

No one seriously concerned with political strategies in the current situation can now afford to ignore the “swing to the Right.” We may not yet understand its extent and its limits, its specific character, its causes and effects. . . . But the tendency is hard to deny. It no longer looks like a temporary swing in the political fortunes, a short-term shift in the balance of forces.

—Stuart Hall, “The Great Moving Right Show”

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1 ***Fascism Ascendant?***

2
3 **T**hese lines, written by Stuart Hall,
4 were a response to the rise of
5 Thatcherism in the United Kingdom in the
6 late 1970s, where the conservative New
7 Right was mobilized in the birthing days
8 of neoliberalism as a kind of cultural logic
9 to hegemonize the masses away from the
10 failing welfare state in its period of crisis.
11 Today, after nearly a decade dealing with
12 the crisis of neoliberalism and its new
13 regime of hyperausterity, we are again
14 witnessing the rise of a rightist movement
15 mobilizing around President Donald Trump.
16 Although it is often commonplace today
17 to connect Trump to previous figures of
18 conservatism, like Margaret Thatcher, the
19 neoconservative movement that galva-
20 nized around George W. Bush, the Moral
21 Majority movement of the 1980s, or the
22 culture wars of the 1990s, or even the
23 fascism of the mid-twentieth century, I
24 want to propose that the rise of “Trump-
25 ism” has its own distinct historical logic. It
26 is a protofascist movement (see Jameson
27 1979: 15), but one that is particular to its
28 own historical conditions of existence.

29 In what follows, I propose three histor-
30 ical and contextual contradictions that help
31 explain the rise of Trumpism and the new
32 brand of white nationalist and misogynistic
33 discourse and violence—whose perpetra-
34 tors often frame their positions in terms
35 of a backlash against progressive and
36 resistant politics—collectively referred to,
37 using its own politically correct term, as
38 the *alt-right*. This term, according to Angela
39 Nagle, was initially used by members of
40 its various groups to define “a new wave
41 of overtly white segregationist and white
42 nationalist movements and subcultures,
43 typified by spokespeople like Richard
44 Spencer [president of the white nationalist
45 think tank the National Policy Institute],

who has called for a US white ethno-
state and a pan-national white empire”
(2017: 12). The alt-right is characterized
by its preoccupation with “IQ, European
demographic and civilizational decline,
cultural decadence, cultural Marxism, anti-
egalitarianism and Islamification” (12). As
expressed by the alt-right darling himself,
Milo Yiannopoulos, the movement is distin-
guished from “old-school racist skinheads”
by its obsession with intelligence. He
writes (with fellow Breitbart blogger Allum
Bokhari) that those in the alt-right “are a
much smarter group of people—which
perhaps suggests why the Left hates them
so much. They’re dangerously bright”
(Bokhari and Yiannopoulos 2016).

Perhaps it is its penchant for a kind
of pseudo-intellectualism that makes the
alt-right somewhat more palatable than
its more apparently extremist predeces-
sors. It is dangerous because it comes off
in some circles and spaces (particularly
online spaces in the Chan culture) as being
intellectual and cultured, rather than draw-
ing influence from the religious moralism
of the New Christian Right, for instance.
Spencer himself lists Friedrich Nietzsche
and Carl Schmitt among his influences
(Wood 2017). But the alt-right’s appeal to
intellect, more than a reference to specific
thinkers and texts, has more to do with
what it perceives as its legitimate claim
to power: in the struggle for supremacy,
“nothing matters, not inheritance, social
connections, or economic resources,
but one’s native intelligence and innate
strength” (Robin 2011: 29). The alt-right
therefore seeks to distance itself in this
way from both an older group of neo-Nazi
skinheads and the Ku Klux Klan, but also,
as Nagle notes, from traditional conserva-
tism and the conservative establishment,
which is often dismissed as “cuckser-
vatives” (2017: 12). Yet how odd that

1 Friedrich Hayek and Ayn Rand—as one
2 news headline put it, “Ayn Rand is dead.
3 Liberals are going to miss her” (Burns
4 2017)—have been replaced by Trump, a
5 man who reeks of imbecility and inepti-
6 tude. Something more must be going on.

7 Indeed, as Corey Robin notes, con-
8 servatism “is the theoretical voice of
9 [the] animus against the agency of the
10 subordinate classes. It provides the most
11 consistent and profound argument as
12 to why the lower orders should not be
13 allowed to exercise their independent
14 will, why they should not be allowed to
15 govern themselves or the polity” (2011:
16 7). For the conservative, hierarchy is order.
17 But what drives the “reactionary mind”
18 of the conservative, as Robin puts it, is
19 the experience of power besieged—that
20 feeling of having (once) had power and
21 now seeing it threatened. This is why,
22 according to him, white men, regardless of
23 class status, are particularly interpellated
24 by conservative ideology. Feminism and
25 antiracism, for instance, challenge the
26 existing power of phallogentrism/patriarchy
27 and Eurocentrism. Robin explains that,
28 although the claim is often that the Left
29 demands more equality while the Right
30 decries more freedom, the disagreement
31 between the two has in fact more to do
32 with the *extension* of freedom. Historically,
33 he claims, “the conservative has favored
34 liberty for the higher orders and constraint
35 for the lower orders. What the conserva-
36 tive dislikes in equality, in other words, is
37 not a threat to freedom but its extension.
38 For in that extension, he sees a loss of his
39 own freedom” (8).

40 Given the extension of freedom to
41 women and racialized minorities, it is
42 easy to understand the populist appeal of
43 conservatism to the average Joe. Despite
44 the fact that conservatism is an ideology
45 that preserves the power of the elite, the

average Joe, in railing against emergent
forces on the left demanding extensions
of freedoms for the oppressed, seeks to
preserve his own relative power vis-à-vis
gendered and racialized minorities. In this
sense, too, “radicalism is the *raison d’être*
of conservatism” (21)—the radical demand
for social and political change is what
drives the conservative reaction toward
preserving the relations of power. How-
ever, this is not to suggest that the conser-
vative Right lacks a desire for change and
transformation in favor of traditionalism. In
fact, to preserve existing forms of power,
the conservative Right constantly requires
incorporating the rhetoric of change as part
of its interpellative practices. It must posit
the Left as the reigning ideology and must
assume some of the characteristics of the
radical to restore vigor to the movement
(24). By doing so, the conservative Right
incorporates the lower orders, allowing
them “to locate themselves symbolically
in the ruling class.” As Robin puts it,
“Ordinary people get to see themselves in
the ruling class by virtue of belonging to a
great nation among nations, and they also
get to govern lesser beings through the
exercise of imperial rule” (35). This is the
essence of right-wing populism: “to appeal
to the mass without disrupting the power
of elites or, more precisely, to harness the
energy of the mass in order to reinforce or
restore the power of elites” (55).

The new alt-right, however, should be
distinguished from the brand of American
neoconservatism tied to support for the
George W. Bush regime. As Wendy Brown
notes, American neoconservatism as a
political force emerged from a conver-
gence of interests, including evangelical
Christianity, Jewish Straussians, secular
Cold Warriors, and conservative feminists
and family moralists (2006: 696). What
binds these seemingly disparate groups

1 under the rubric of neoconservatism is
2 their affirmation for a moralist state power
3 both domestically and internationally. Thus
4 the neoconservative Moral Majority move-
5 ment abandoned “classic conservative
6 commitments to a modest libertarianism,
7 isolationism, frugality and fiscal tightness,
8 belief in limits and moderation, and affinity
9 with aristocratic virtues of refinement,
10 rectitude, civility, education, and discipline”
11 for an avowed drive to power, paranoid
12 about the crumbling morality of the West
13 (697). Neoconservatism therefore imputes
14 to the state the authority to set the moral-
15 religious compass of society (697). The
16 alt-right is distinguished by its chiding of
17 moral-religious rightness. In fact, its blatant
18 crassness is one of its most identifiable
19 features.

20 Much of the popularity of the alt-right,
21 and the attention it has received in the
22 mainstream mass media, prior to Trump’s
23 election, was due partly to its combina-
24 tion of crude humor and youthfulness,
25 and because of its image-based culture
26 of online meme production in forums like
27 4Chan and 8Chan (Nagle 2017: 13). Tradi-
28 tional conservatives took notice of the alt-
29 right and began to incorporate some of its
30 nihilistic and ironic tones, developed in the
31 Chan culture, because of its vocal opposi-
32 tion to such Left forces as political correct-
33 ness, feminism, and multiculturalism (16).
34 The alt-right and traditional conservatives
35 have thus found an alliance in challenging
36 the apparent Left penchant for oppressing
37 “free speech,” which the alt-right and con-
38 servatives see as a product of feminism
39 and (so-called) cultural Marxism’s push for
40 political correctness, and collectively refer
41 to as social justice warriors or SJWs.

42 What makes the alt-right such an
43 oddly fascinating (yet no less concerning)
44 movement is that it seems to use cyni-
45 cism and irony in staging and borrowing

language and tactics from the New Left of
the 1960s. At a very formal level, it seems
to promote itself as a radical alternative
movement against what it positions as the
dominant ruling ideology. It is a reactionary
movement against the liberal center; how-
ever, it is a *pseudo*-emancipatory move-
ment that targets culture and different
cultural identities, instead of the political
economy of capitalism, and its class rela-
tions, as the source of today’s problems.
Culture, rather than the political economy
of capitalism, is for the alt-right the real
problem.

Both the rise of Trump and the alt-right
share populist and chauvinistic dimensions
in common with an older European fas-
cism, which, to paraphrase Slavoj Žižek,
is in a sense a “conservative revolution”:
it is capable of organizing dissent by recog-
nizing people’s authentic frustration with
the status quo; but rather than address
the core problem, that is, the relations of
exploitation in capitalism, for instance, it
displaces this problem onto a *false* prob-
lem (2008: 304). Usually, for right-wing
populism, this means blaming some kind
of false image of an enemy or intruder who
disrupted the system from within: the anti-
Semitic representation of Jews and Jewish
people, for instance, as in Nazi Germany;
or as in a more traditional conservatism,
those who identify as queer, who are sup-
posedly responsible for the disintegration
of the institution of marriage; or even the
Muslim other whom we are told we must
fear as the “terrorist” threat. And so forth
and so on. As the logic goes—from the
perspective of the Right, of course—the
problem is not the system itself but the
(image of) the false enemy. The figure of
the enemy is surfaced as a fetish figure to
evade or disavow the existing problems
and inherent contradictions in the capital-
ist mode of production and its increasing

1 tendency toward mass proletarianization
2 (see Jameson 2010).
3 Today, for the alt-right, this false
4 enemy has multiple identities. On the one
5 hand, it is formed through standard prac-
6 tices of racism and sexism, thus extending
7 the post-9/11 violence against the Muslim
8 other. On the other hand, the alt-right
9 has targeted particularly politicized groups,
10 the vaguely defined “Islamicists,” for
11 instance, as opposed to Muslims. How-
12 ever, one primary target of the alt-right
13 has been feminism. The alt-right is largely
14 masculinist and antifeminist, concerned
15 with the decline of Western masculinity,
16 and therefore feminism has been one of
17 its chief targets. It is not simply that the
18 alt-right is misogynist (which it certainly is);
19 it specifically targets *political* feminism,
20 aided in part by selective female voices,
21 such as the self-dubbed “factual femi-
22 nist,” Christina Hoff Sommers (1995), who
23 denounces contemporary third-wave and
24 postmodern feminism. We saw this, for
25 instance, in the #GamerGate fiasco in
26 the summer of 2014, where female games
27 critics, such as Anita Sarkeesian and Zoe
28 Quinn, were harassed online by swarm
29 attacks, threatening violence and rape.
30 This was all because Sarkeesian and
31 Quinn sought to introduce feminist critique
32 and themes into gamer culture, which male
33 gamers saw as an affront to their free
34 speech. They believed largely that femi-
35 nist critiques of gamer culture were just
36 more SJW “nonsense” and that from
37 their perspective, the critics were being
38 oversensitive, seeking to censor male
39 gamers. The extremely violent and sexist
40 backlash was, then, as Nagle notes, a mas-
41 culinist response to political correctness,
42 paradoxically to prove that gamer culture
43 was *definitely not* sexist (2017: 20). This
44 movement targets politicized groups rather
45

than individuals based simply on race or
gender, since this creates the appearance
that Left political movements, like femi-
nism, are figures of dominant authority—it
makes it look like feminism is a dominant
ideology—despite the continued existence
of systemic (and physical) violence against
women, which reproduces existing forms
of inequality. Going after feminism in this
way reinforces patriarchal domination as a
social, cultural, and political institution. But
still, because it is posited as transgressive
and subversive, the alt-right is tactical in
displacing blame for existing economic
problems and cultural conflicts onto liberal
and Left agents.

My goal is to contextualize and
historicize the mainstreaming of the new
alt-right with reference to three overlap-
ping contradictions. These three contra-
dictions help explain Trump’s successful
campaign in the United States and his
election as president in November 2016
as symptomatic and not as a cause of the
rise of the alt-right. It is already popular to
make connections between Trump and the
new legitimacy given to the alt-right. But I
want to investigate some of the possible
explanations for this relationship to better
assess how it could have been otherwise.
In this regard, the name “Trump,” I claim,
signifies a new historical moment that is
symptomatic of these overlapping contra-
dictions. The first contradiction concerns
the political and cultural context of post-
modern practices of transgression and
subversion, drawing on aesthetic practices
that grew out of modernism. The second
concerns the contradiction between the
democratic and commercial logics of the
mainstream mass media; and the third
deals with the failure of the Left to make
powerful gains in the wake of the 2008
financial crisis. These three overlapping

1 contradictions are by no means exten-
2 sive, but they do provide some points of
3 reflection for understanding the present
4 conjuncture.

5
6 ***Contradictions of Subversion and***
7 ***Transgression in Postmodern Culture***

8 The rise of Milo, Trump and the alt-right are not
9 evidence of the return of conservatism, but instead
10 of the absolute hegemony of the culture of non-
11 conformism, self-expression, transgression and
12 irreverence for its own sake—an aesthetic that
13 suits those who believe in nothing but the liberation
14 of the individual and the id, whether they're on
15 the left or the right. The principle-free idea of
16 counterculture did not go away; it just became the
17 style of the new right.

18 —Angela Nagle, *Kill All Normies:*
19 *The Online Culture Wars from Tumblr and 4Chan*
20 *to the Alt-Right and Trump*
21

22 It has been claimed that Trump is the
23 first “postmodern” president or that his
24 presidency is ultimately “postmodern”
25 (see, for instance, Ernst 2017; McKnight
26 2017; Smart 2017). This seemingly astute
27 claim rests on the simple idea that Trump
28 is somehow “post-Truth,” a notion that
29 came out in full force in particular when
30 his campaign manager and now counselor,
31 Kellyanne Conway, used the much-mocked
32 phrase “alternative facts” to support Press
33 Secretary Sean Spicer’s claim that Trump’s
34 inauguration was the most highly attended
35 ever in American history (which it was
36 not) (Bradner 2017). For much of this
37 popular criticism, postmodernism amounts
38 to little more than a certain brand of rela-
39 tivism and the rebuking of the real. While
40 I disagree with how this claim has been
41 deployed, I think that it is right, but for the
42 wrong reasons. Trump and the alt-right are
43 definitively products of postmodernism,
44 but not necessarily in the way it has so
45

far been claimed. Although some of the
more positive features of postmodernism
as a political and cultural philosophy have
been its propensity to bring to light the
underlying Eurocentric and phallogocentric
elements of modern liberal culture, it is
its “incredulity towards metanarratives”
(to use the phrase popularized by Jean-
François Lyotard) that I find most problem-
atic, and its reduction in importance of the
commodity-class dynamics of late capital-
ism (see Flisfeder 2017). Trump and the
alt-right, I claim, are in this way symptoms
of postmodernism—a reaction that can
be understood only at a formal level in the
emergence of the postmodern. To return,
then, to a metanarrative of sorts, the rise
of Trump and the alt-right must be con-
textualized within the emergence of the
existing postmodern culture.

The alt-right is, on the one hand, a
by-product of ideological postmodernism
and, on the other, the result of the contra-
dictions of subversion and transgression
within postmodern culture. To understand
this, it is necessary to first recall in what
sense subversion itself became part of the
dominant ideology of postmodern late cap-
italism. In this regard, Fredric Jameson’s
(1984) cogent application of the Lacanian
logic of the psychotic’s discourse still
provides an illuminating aesthetic descrip-
tion of the historical, political, cultural, and
ideological dynamics of contemporary
postmodern society. What he describes,
borrowing equally from Gilles Deleuze and
Félix Guattari (1983), as the “breakdown
of the signifying chain”—or what Žižek
(1999) refers to as the demise of symbolic
efficiency—operates as a kind of short-
hand to describe some of the various
tenets of postmodernity and postmodern
culture, including, on both the left and
the right, an incredulity of sorts toward
metanarratives (Lyotard 1984), otherwise

1 encapsulated by Francis Fukuyama’s
 2 (1992) thesis about the “end of history” or
 3 Daniel Bell’s (1960) about the “end of ide-
 4 ology.” The “breakdown” metaphor high-
 5 lights what Perry Anderson means when
 6 he says, “Modernism, from its earliest in
 7 Baudelaire or Flaubert onwards, virtually
 8 defined itself as ‘anti-bourgeois.’ Post-
 9 modernism is what occurs when, without
 10 any victory, that adversary is gone” (1998:
 11 86). Postmodernism is equally, according
 12 to Terry Eagleton (1996), defined not by
 13 a victory on the part of the antibourgeois
 14 but by an imagined defeat—that is, by
 15 a cynical resignation that, in Thatcher’s
 16 words, “there is no alternative,” a feature
 17 that the late Mark Fisher (2009) referred to
 18 as “capitalist realism.”

19 This sentiment, of the loss of the
 20 adversarial relationship between the
 21 bourgeoisie and the proletariat—whether
 22 in the form of the perceived triumph of
 23 either side—is not at all disconnected from
 24 the logic of capital. It is tied to the very
 25 persistence of capital to break down all
 26 barriers to accumulation. This includes, in
 27 some cases, the breaking down of political
 28 and cultural barriers, which is partly what
 29 the “breakdown” metaphor describes;
 30 or in Deleuze and Guattari’s terms, the
 31 constant pursuit of accumulation and the
 32 breaking down of barriers force a deterrito-
 33 rialization of capital, unleashing it in differ-
 34 ent modalities, or “lines of flight” (Deleuze
 35 and Guattari 1987: 510). Politically, this
 36 has resulted in the *sublation* of existing
 37 antagonisms into the very logic of capital,
 38 save (of course) for that antagonism that
 39 is its absolute point of negation: the class
 40 struggle, which instead of being eliminated
 41 is simply displaced onto other, cultural
 42 antagonisms, that is, class war turns into
 43 “culture war.” This last point helps, in part,
 44 to explain the rising influence of the Moral
 45 Majority and neoconservatism among the

working classes in the United States from
 the late 1970s up to and including George
 W. Bush’s two terms as president. With
 the sublation of class war into culture war,
 it often appeared as though the Right more
 than the (liberal) Left spoke the language
 of the working class (see Frank 2004). It is
 also in this sense that, as Anderson puts
 it, modernity “comes to an end . . . when
 it loses any antonym” (1998: 92), that is,
 when the terms of antagonism get so con-
 fused that the image of the actual enemy
 gets blurred. The driving force of the exist-
 ing postmodern culture therefore differs
 from the propulsion of the modern culture,
 fueled by antagonism and contradiction.

As a logic of production, capital is
 driven by its dialectic of development,
 constantly in need of destroying the old to
 produce the new (Berman 1982) or, in a
 sense, what David Harvey (2004) means
 by the phrase *accumulation by dispos-
 session*. As such, it consistently requires
 breaking down those older ideological—
 as well as material—barriers that pre-
 vent exponential expansion. Modernity
 was therefore culturally contradictory in
 the sense that, for instance, it relied on
 traditional culture—say, the culture of the
 conjugal, patriarchal family—as part of its
 own processes of social reproduction
 while working to break down the struc-
 tures of traditional culture to produce new
 subjectivities that could act as agents
 of consumption, the latter of which is
 required to ensure that a crisis of effective
 demand in the market does not ensue.
 This logic of antagonism and contradiction
 operated similarly in art and culture.

The significance of the political
 formation of the bourgeoisie as a class
 is matched by the emergence of the
 market as the material and ideological
 space of shared individual equivalence.
 Regardless of one’s identity outside the

1 market, inside we are all supposedly free
 2 and equal individuals engaged in acts of
 3 (fair and equitable) exchange. The market
 4 logic applied as well to art and culture,
 5 as the rise of capitalism broke down the
 6 older relationships between the artist
 7 and his patron. The commodification of
 8 art and culture is a contributing factor for
 9 the emergence of modernism. No longer
 10 producing for the patron, the artist—now,
 11 too, “liberated” as “entrepreneurial”
 12 labor—produced art for the market. But
 13 modern art was able to carve out for itself
 14 its own separate sphere, a field of cul-
 15 tural production, the latter defined by two
 16 points of negation, first, by its vocation
 17 to not become mere commodity. In this
 18 sense, modern art sought to distance
 19 itself from what was later termed *mass* or
 20 *popular culture*—or the “culture industry.”
 21 Second is the negating influence of new
 22 media, beginning with the daguerreotype.
 23 What the technological reproducibility of
 24 the image instituted in modernism was a
 25 formal criterion to “make it new!” From
 26 impressionism onward, through cubism,
 27 surrealism, and abstract expressionism,
 28 visual art sought to distance itself formally
 29 from the production of verisimilitude found
 30 in popular culture.

31 On the other hand, the modern avant-
 32 garde found definition by distancing itself,
 33 again, from the culture of the bourgeois-
 34 sie. Culturally, modern artists carved out
 35 a space for themselves by setting up a
 36 concept of the bourgeoisie to demonstrate
 37 precisely what they were *not*. At the same
 38 time, modern artists sought to distance
 39 their work from the political sphere, com-
 40 pletely—hence the tautology “art
 41 for art’s sake.” So it is in these two ways
 42 that modernism found definition: by
 43 railing against what it was *not*—a
 44 process of negation—both in terms
 45 of its object (the work of art itself as

noncommodity) and in the identity of the
 artists (antibourgeois).

However, capital, being what it is,
 did not take very long to saturate this
 antagonism. While modernism may be
 understood by its vocation to not become
 commodity, postmodernism, we could
 say, is what emerges at the point of *total*
 commodification in the postwar consumer
 society, where art and commodity begin to
 fold into each other, as in the case of pop
 art, like Andy Warhol’s *Campbell’s Soup*
Cans, and later with works of pastiche,
 like Cindy Sherman’s *Untitled Film Stills*.
 But postmodernism is also what emerges
 when the rebellious art of modernism,
 which constantly sought to negate the
 existing world, formally, *becomes* the
 official art of the canon, the gallery, and
 the university. Put differently—and this is
 one of my central claims—if modernism
 defined itself as a process of subversion
 and negation, postmodernism, culturally,
 is what emerges *when subversion itself*
becomes the dominant ideology. It is in
 this sense that we should take seriously
 Žižek’s (2002: 169) warning that we should
 not confuse the ruling ideology with the
 ideology that *seems* to rule. If subversion is
 now part of the ruling ideology, how might
 we imagine the subversion of subversion?

Alongside these developments in
 the cultural sphere, a parallel conun-
 drum emerged in the political spheres of
 Western Europe and North America in
 the 1960s, in the moment of the postwar
 welfare state and Cold War—era class
compromise between capital and labor,
 which saw the emergence of new sub-
 jects of history, in place of the apparently
 nonexistent proletariat. In place of the
 class struggle between capital and labor,
 new social movements (NSMs)—from
 the civil rights movement and postcolonial
 movements to second-wave feminism, the

1 gay liberation movement, and the student
 2 and antiwar movements—arrived on the
 3 scene. But just as modern art and culture
 4 were absorbed into the mainstream, first
 5 by the logic of commodification and then
 6 by way of institutionalization, so were the
 7 NSMs similarly diffused.

8 A positive feature of the NSMs was
 9 the kind of criticism that they launched
 10 against the phallocentrism, heterosexism,
 11 and Eurocentrism of both the dominant
 12 culture and the labor movement. However,
 13 in the campus protest culture of the 1960s
 14 and 1970s, there was a concerted effort to
 15 ensure that fights against sexism, racism,
 16 and homophobia were still conducted in
 17 the context of a class awareness: hence
 18 the cultural studies mantra “race-class-
 19 gender.” With their gaining political
 20 influence, NSMs had a profound impact
 21 on the curriculum of humanities depart-
 22 ments in the 1960s, 1970s, and 1980s,
 23 with more attention being paid to nonwhite
 24 and female scholars, writers, and artists,
 25 launching a kind of academic “culture
 26 war.” Again, positively, the culture war in
 27 the university drew attention to issues of
 28 cultural representation in the media and
 29 the stereotypical representation of racial-
 30 ized and gendered minorities, which by the
 31 1990s came to include the representation
 32 of gays and lesbians, with the addition of
 33 queer theory to the literature.

34 Not surprisingly, and not unproblem-
 35 atically, the rising attention to cultural
 36 representation and questions of diversity in
 37 the media was picked up by the consumer
 38 culture. Dick Hebdige’s (1979) now-classic
 39 study of subculture is useful here. Just as
 40 the threat of subculture is diffused by and
 41 incorporated through commodification,
 42 so have the identity politics of the NSMs
 43 and the institutionalization of the culture
 44 wars been incorporated into the branding
 45 logic of the consumer society, which is

interested less in multiculturalism and
 diversity, or intersectionality, than with
 maintaining a steady base of diverse
 consumers—the interpellation of new
 subjectivities—still, in order to avoid crises
 of market demand (see Klein 2000). Unlike
 the mass audience culture of the early
 entertainment industries, the contempo-
 rary consumer culture is “demassified” in
 the sense that it makes diversity a market-
 ing tactic to broaden its reach. But what
 this context also reveals is that here, too,
 rebelliousness, difference, and subversion
 have become part of the reigning ideology
 when it comes to questions of identity.
 Demassification and branding are both tied
 to the commercial diffusion of subversion.
 Rather than ideology interpellating indi-
 viduals as compliant subjects, the ruling
 ideology today is grounded on the inherent
 transgression (Žižek 1997) of the ideology
 that seems to rule. Here we face one of
 the central cultural and political contra-
 dictions of our time: if, as I have shown,
 in both art and culture, and in the identity
 politics of the NSMs, subversion, far from
 being antagonistic to the existing system,
 has actually become part of its interPELLA-
 tive call—that is, if subversion has itself
 become the dominant ideology (in the case
 of art and culture, the ethic of innovation
 reigns over tradition; in the case of identity
 politics, diversity subverts conformity)—if
 all of this is the case, what does the sub-
 version of subversion look like?

This is how the situation must be
 approached from the perspective of the
 new alt-right. What the Left sees as the
 subversion of bourgeois/elitist, phallocen-
 tric, and Eurocentric ideology, the alt-right
 sees as the formation of a new culturally
 dominant ideology, best encapsulated
 in the much-disdained call for political
 correctness. The alt-right, too, is antibour-
 geois, but perceives and constructs the

1 Left as just such a bourgeoisie, trapped in
 2 its own libertine elitist bubble. What the
 3 alt-right, particularly in its white nationalist
 4 and masculinist bent, finds most objec-
 5 tionable in the politically correct postmod-
 6 ern identity politics is what its members
 7 perceive as a double standard on ques-
 8 tions of diversity and identity. From their
 9 perspective, all identities are permissible,
 10 save for white and conservative, or even
 11 “normative,” identities. In this scenario,
 12 when political correctness and postmod-
 13 ern identity politics are posited as the ide-
 14 ology that seems to rule, for the alt-right,
 15 its politics cannot but appear subversive.
 16 The alt-right, in fact, is caught up in the
 17 postmodern interpellative call to subver-
 18 sion. What makes this formation addi-
 19 tionally troubling is that it also, at times,
 20 seems to rail against the consumer culture
 21 of postmodern capitalism, making it both
 22 ironically populist and at times seemingly
 23 anticapitalist, not unlike the depiction of
 24 Project Mayhem in David Fincher’s *Fight*
 25 *Club* (1999), an iconic film for members
 26 of the alt-right. Although the film appears
 27 radical in its anticonsumerist posturing,
 28 the film is outrageously misogynistic in its
 29 equating of consumerism with feminin-
 30 ity. In the fight club, a prototypical men’s
 31 rights association (MRA) if ever there was
 32 one, the men literally beat each other up,
 33 metaphorically beating the consumerism
 34 and femininity out of themselves.

35
 36 **“Fake News” and “Post-truth”:
 37 Contradictions of the Media Spectacle**

38 No wonder your President has to be an actor, he’s
 39 got to look good on television!

40 —Doc Brown, *Back to the Future*

41
 42 Prepare to meet Donald Trump, possibly the first
 43 “social media” and “reality TV” president.

44 —Van Jones, “Trump: The Social Media
 45 President?”

Postmodernism is thus contradictory for,
 on the one hand, instituting and commod-
 ifying subversion and transgression as
 an apparent ideology and, on the other,
 for interpellating the proponents of the
 ruling ideology as somehow subversive.
 The second contradiction concerns that
 between the democratic and commercial
 logics of the media. One of the other by-
 products of commodification has been a
 democratization of sorts. Again, in art and
 culture this has meant widening access
 to those spaces previously open only to
 the elite—spaces of cultural consumption,
 like the gallery. Oddly, though, com-
 modification has the effect of veiling the
 class antagonism when it now comes to
 accessing art, culture, and information.
 No one is barred from access, so long as
 one can pay the price of admission. For
 conservative cultural critics, like Matthew
 Arnold (1993) and F. R. Leavis (1930),
 and especially for Left cultural critics, like
 Max Horkheimer and Theodor W. Adorno
 (2000), the commodification of culture,
 however democratizing to a certain extent,
 still played a role in removing what was
 uniquely valuable about works of art—that
 is, their aura, or their uniqueness in time
 and space, and their ability to speak to the
 sublime essence of the human condition.
 For Adorno, more so, modern art had the
 ability to truly challenge the reigning order,
 in contrast to the products of the culture
 industry, which simply help to reproduce
 capitalism.

The technological reproducibility of
 art, too, according to Walter Benjamin
 (1968), is a factor in the democratization
 of art and culture. Just as paying the price
 of admission grants access to the unique
 work, so too does new media make possi-
 ble the widespread dissemination of the
 work so that it can be accessed far and
 wide, beyond the gallery’s limited reach. In

1 fact, this aspect of new media, its ability to
 2 share information widely, is part and parcel
 3 of democratization in a political sense. The
 4 term *media* has become synonymous with
 5 the practice of journalism. As journalism,
 6 the media serve an important function in
 7 democracy by providing the people with
 8 the information that they need to make
 9 critical rational decisions about how to
 10 *participate* democratically. However, this
 11 democratic (fourth estate / public sphere)
 12 function of the media is contradicted by
 13 the commercial (i.e., commodified) logic of
 14 the media.

15 As media scholars have long demon-
 16 strated, private media companies are
 17 principally driven, as businesses, by the
 18 profit motive. This includes contemporary
 19 new media and social media websites,
 20 such as Google, Facebook, and Twitter.
 21 As Edward Herman and Noam Chomsky
 22 (1988) demonstrated thirty years ago, the
 23 commercial logic of the media, particu-
 24 larly influenced by the role of owners and
 25 advertisers, works toward filtering *out*
 26 information that is either detrimental to
 27 the political status quo or at the very least
 28 to its bottom line. This includes sifting out
 29 content that potentially offends advertisers
 30 or special interest groups. Nevertheless,
 31 at the same time, the media interpellates
 32 viewers through the spectacularization and
 33 sensationalization of news and information
 34 (see Postman 1985). Since media reve-
 35 nues are still drawn by maximizing viewer
 36 attention, and the “work” of the so-called
 37 audience commodity (Smythe 1977), or
 38 online as the “prosumer commodity”
 39 (Fuchs 2014a), building a sizable audience
 40 is still one of the primary motivating factors
 41 of media production. In this regard, we
 42 can also see to some degree the “liberal-
 43 ization” of the media in the same sense,
 44 as has been already discussed in terms
 45 of the diffusion and branding of diversity.

This gives some credence to criticisms of
 the mainstream mass media from both the
 Left and the Right.

On the left, the political economic
 critique of the media demonstrates the
 existence of a right-wing, procapitalist bias.
 On the right, however, the mainstream
 mass media is believed to contain an
 underlying liberal bias, which has become
 a favorite target for right-wing radio talk-
 show hosts, like Rush Limbaugh (2015),
 who see the push for political correctness
 and the positive representation of women
 and racialized minorities so much as a
 threat sparked by the “cultural Marxism”
 of the liberal university campuses of the
 1960s and their culture wars. The rise of
 the right-wing website Breitbart News is
 also indicative of this trend, as the site was
 initially conceived as a locus for uncovering
 liberal falsehoods, cover-ups, and conspir-
 acies (Solov 2015). Regardless of which
 side is more correct—the Left critique is
 based more in terms of an organizational
 analysis, while the Right critique is based
 more on selective content analysis of the
 supposedly “liberal” media—both the Left
 and the Right apparently have cause for
 not trusting the mainstream media, which
 also makes pop protest songs, like Green
 Day’s “American Idiot” (2004) and Katy
 Perry’s “Chained to the Rhythm” (2017),
 both of which take media as their political
 targets, politically ambiguous. Evidently,
 everyone—whether on the left or right—
 is critical of the “fake news.” This is one
 reason for understanding the techno-
 utopianism about the digital public sphere
 of the Internet, first in the 1990s, with the
 development of the World Wide Web, and
 then again in recent times with the rise
 of the so-called social media revolutions.
 As Nagle notes, “Just a few years ago
 the Left-cyberutopians claimed that ‘the
 disgust had become a network’ and that

1 establishment old media no longer control
2 politics, that the new public sphere was
3 going to be based on leaderless, user-
4 generated social media.” This network,
5 she says, “has indeed arrived, but it has
6 helped to take the Right, not the Left, to
7 power” (2017: 27).

8 If the protest movements that arose
9 in the wake of the 2008 financial crisis,
10 such as the Arab Spring and Occupy Wall
11 Street, themselves organized in part by
12 using social media sites like Facebook and
13 Twitter (Fuchs 2014b; Herrera 2014; Lenzo
14 2013; Tufekci 2013), energizing the techno-
15 utopians on the liberal left, this positive
16 image of the new Internet and social
17 media culture was crushed by the election
18 of Trump in November 2016. Not surpris-
19 ingly, the enthusiasm for the social media
20 revolutions that we saw in the mainstream
21 media quickly dissipated in the election’s
22 aftermath. How could we have all been so
23 blindsided? Social media became vilified
24 with ensuing reports about online informa-
25 tion “bubbles” or silos and the problem of
26 “fake news” (Lee 2016; Solon 2016).

27 The “bubble” problem is exacerbated
28 by for-profit social media websites, and
29 if the prosumer commodity model is
30 accurate—where social media sites are
31 capable of monetizing user-generated con-
32 tent and data—then there is an incentive
33 to maximize user participation as much
34 as possible. This is partly what Jodi Dean
35 (2002, 2009, 2010) means when she
36 writes about “communicative capitalism.”
37 Instead of serving democratic interests, as
38 profit-generating platforms, social media
39 turn participation and communication into
40 means of monetization and revenue build-
41 ing. Maximizing participation is key, and
42 part of the algorithmic logic of sites like
43 Facebook includes individuating user expe-
44 rience in the sense that the feedback loop
45 becomes part of the normalized regimen of

site activity (see Bucher 2012; Finn 2017;
Langlois 2014; Mager 2014; Srnicek 2016).
Unlike an older conception of ideological
passivity, social media use is paradoxical in
that the more we participate, the more we
are plugged into the feedback loop of the
ideological choir club, so to speak, how-
ever lacking in any real encounter with the
ideological other. In ideal terms, the liberal
bourgeois conception of the democratic
public sphere (Habermas 1974) has meant
more or less—and not without significant
flaws (Fraser 1990; Mouffe 2000; Spivak
1988)—an *encounter* with the other. The
notion of critical rational public discourse
is premised on the idea that people in civil
society must come together to politely
and openly debate opposing views. Not
only do the feedback loops and informa-
tion silos on social media prevent such an
encounter; the new digital society of the
spectacle is contrarily driven by maximizing
the number of hits, clicks, likes, and shares
that a post receives. The digital attention
economy is very much an effect of the
neoliberal entrepreneurial ethic of reputa-
tion management (see Flisfeder 2015). In
the cluttered spaces of the digital sea of
abundance, attention is valuable currency,
and getting noticed sometimes means
being loud and obnoxious.

For the neoliberal ideology, it is primar-
ily the entrepreneur as identity curator who
is most publicly valorized by the reigning
sensibility. However, it is the figure of the
troll—an agent who builds a reputation by
tarnishing the reputation of others—who
has become one of the primary antago-
nists of the present, championed heroically
by the racists and misogynistic meme cul-
ture of the alt-right. For a culture that privi-
leges the troll as its antihero, Trump, then,
appears as a godsend. Trolls, as Richard
Seymour (2016) puts it, “are the self-styled
pranksters of the internet. A subculture of

1 wind-up merchants who will say anything
 2 they can to provoke unwary victims, then
 3 delight in the outrage that follows.” What
 4 drives the troll is the pursuit of “lulz”—a
 5 cynical form of enjoyment “that derives
 6 from someone else’s anguish.” And as
 7 agents of the alt-right, the troll delights
 8 particularly in the harassment of femi-
 9 nists, cultural Marxists, and PC liberals or
 10 SJWs. With this use being made of the
 11 most advanced communications system
 12 and technology ever to exist, it is worth
 13 asking if the concerns of conservative
 14 elitist critics like Arnold and Leavis, or Left
 15 critics like Horkheimer and Adorno, were in
 16 fact correct about the commodification of
 17 culture, especially if digital democracy has
 18 been reduced to the anything goes, free
 19 speech fundamentalism of the mascu-
 20 linist alt-right troll. My own inclination is
 21 that social media can and do still fulfill a
 22 democratic function, but as with all forces
 23 of production, must be contextualized
 24 within the existing relations of production,
 25 exploitation, and the class struggle.

26 Finally, what also makes the emer-
 27 gence of the alt-right troll—and Trump as
 28 a figurehead—so hard to bear for the tradi-
 29 tional liberal Left is that the regular appeals
 30 to truth seem to have flown out the win-
 31 dow entirely. Even the kind of political eco-
 32 nomic criticism of the mainstream media’s
 33 propaganda model, expounded by Herman
 34 and Chomsky, still relies on an older notion
 35 of ideology as false consciousness. Part of
 36 the problem that they see with the mass
 37 media is that its system of filtration cre-
 38 ates a barrier of access for people to the
 39 truth. They—and Chomsky in much of his
 40 political commentary in particular—seem
 41 to rely on the idea that “if only the people
 42 knew the truth,” then they would revolt
 43 and demand back their democracy. The
 44 problem is that followers of the alt-right,
 45 and Trump in particular, already seem to

know the truth, but continue to act as if
 this were not the case. In their cynical
 enjoyment of lulz, truth simply does not
 factor in. As Seymour points out, “This
 is what the critique of ‘post-truth politics’
 misses. Even when he lies egregiously,
 Trump’s fans think he is demonstrating an
 important truth in exposing media fakery.”

***The Rise of the Alt-Right out
 of the Failures of the Left***

Every rise of Fascism bears witness to a failed
 revolution.

—Walter Benjamin, “Theories of German Fascism”
 (as quoted by Žižek)

So now we are faced with a culture that
 champions subversion and transgression
 itself being transgressed by the so-called
 alt-right; we are faced with the possibility
 that not even the truth portrayed by the
 media (or truth itself) is enough to bring
 about an enlightened counterpublic. The
 problem today is less the nonknowledge of
 the public than a collective cynical resigna-
 tion in the form of what Fisher (2009) calls
 “capitalist realism.” Such an identification
 is built around, first, Thatcher’s well-known
 TINA statement, “there is no alternative,”
 and second, by Jameson’s (1994) thesis
 that it is easier to imagine the end of the
 world than the end of capitalism. This kind
 of cynical resignation has been reinforced
 somewhat by the visible failures of the
 Left ever since the beginning of the 2008
 financial crisis.

Recall, again, that we did see a wave
 of Left protest movements and resistance
 after the 2008 crisis, from the so-called
 Arab Spring to the Occupy Wall Street
 movement. What was significant about the
 former is that it showed how the strength
 of the people could be a force of change.
 The Occupy movement, in addition, drew

1 significance for directing attention to
 2 the capital-class dynamic—pointing the
 3 finger at (or giving “the finger” to) Wall
 4 Street, using the language of “we are
 5 the 99%”—and of existing global power
 6 and the cause behind the 2008 crisis
 7 (i.e., the dangers of deregulated capital
 8 and the growth of fictitious capital in the
 9 form of collateralized debt obligations,
 10 such as mortgage-backed securities, and
 11 derivatives, such as credit default swaps).
 12 However, these movements failed to
 13 produce any kind of lasting alternative to
 14 the existing system (OWS was famously
 15 mocked for being leaderless and for
 16 lacking concrete “demands”—the imagery
 17 alone seems to equate OWS with some
 18 kind of hostage-taking situation), and
 19 therefore reflected the impotence of the
 20 Left. Once again, the Left was incapable
 21 of producing change. There have been
 22 different material dimensions to each new
 23 rise of the Right in recent years, whether
 24 it is Trumpism, the Brexit vote, or the new
 25 alt-right. But in many ways, they are all
 26 reactionary responses to the failure of the
 27 Left in the wake of the crisis.

28 Phenomena like the rise of the alt-right
 29 demonstrate quite clearly that “every rise
 30 of Fascism bears witness to a failed revolution.” This phrase, which Žižek (2006: 363;
 31 2009: 73; 2010: 152; 2014: 101) often attributes to Walter Benjamin, signals what is
 32 perhaps the most depressing aspect of the
 33 rise of the alt-right as a protofascist movement. It highlights the fact that “there was
 34 a revolutionary potential, a dissatisfaction,
 35 which the Left was not able to mobilize”
 36 (Žižek 2010: 152), or in fact, that the revolutionary potential of the Left failed by being
 37 beaten out by the predominant liberal
 38 status quo. There are, then, two ways to
 39 understand the failure of the Left in the
 40 wake of the 2008 crisis of capitalism: (1) a
 41 failure of mobilization; (2) a failure to break

through and defeat the liberal ruling class.
 The first problem is one of building up the
 Left as a hegemonic force. In some ways,
 the Arab Spring and OWS did demonstrate
 a wave of postcrisis leftist enlightenment,
 which saw rising popularity of left-wing
 political parties, such as Syriza in Greece,
 as well as avowed socialist figures like
 Bernie Sanders in the United States and
 Jeremy Corbyn in the United Kingdom. But
 Syriza’s inability to defeat the European
 “Troika” (the European Commission, the
 European Central Bank, and the International Monetary Fund) in its austerity talks,
 the pro-Brexit vote in the UK, and Sanders’s failure to secure the nomination to
 become the Democratic Party’s candidate
 for president all showed signs of defeat for
 a Left that rose up only to be beaten back
 down, not by the alt-right but in fact primarily by the liberal status quo. Therefore,
 according to Žižek, the liberal ruling class
 and the fascistic reaction are two sides of
 the same coin.

Žižek distinguishes liberal agency from
 that of the fascist by comparing two different modes of fetishism: the permissive-cynical form and the populist-fascistic form (2009: 66). The first form is tied to a false universality: “The subject advocates freedom or equality, while being unaware of implicit qualifications which, in their very form, constrain its scope (the privileging of certain social strata: being rich, or male, or belonging to a certain culture, etc.).” The second form, in contrast, “involves a false identification of both the nature of the antagonism and the enemy: class struggle is displaced, for instance, onto the struggle with the Jews, so that popular rage at being exploited is redirected away from capitalist relations as such and onto the ‘Jewish plot’” (66). Both forms, then, operate through the odd pairing of the fetish and the symptom: the formal fetishism of

1 the liberal permissive cynic, both in the
 2 form of the commodity and in the form
 3 of the law (i.e., equality before the eyes
 4 of the law), produces as its symptom the
 5 proletarianized subject as its excess; in
 6 the case of the populist-fascist, the figure
 7 of the other or the enemy (“Jew” in the
 8 case of Nazi anti-Semitism, for instance;
 9 feminists and cultural Marxists in the case
 10 of the alt-right) is fetishized, displacing the
 11 centrality of the class struggle (67). The
 12 paradox is that, although demystification
 13 is easier with the permissive enlightened
 14 liberal—identification of class struggle as
 15 the real problem or threat—such a liberal is
 16 in terms of the class struggle the real class
 17 enemy, while those who would be the
 18 apparent proletarianized class ally are more
 19 difficult to enlighten, preferring instead to
 20 blame the racialized and gendered other as
 21 a scapegoat. For Žižek, this does not mean
 22 that we should simply “understand” the
 23 racism and the sexism of the proletariat;
 24 rather, what it suggests is that, instead
 25 of simply preaching liberal tolerance and
 26 permissiveness, it is necessary to artic-
 27 ulate the underlying class dimensions
 28 of the class struggle directly in nonmys-
 29 tified terms. This is why, as he puts it,
 30 although “one should have no qualms
 31 about concluding short-term alliances with
 32 egalitarian liberals as part of the anti-sexist
 33 and anti-racist struggle,” in the long term,
 34 “the success of the radical emancipatory
 35 struggle depends on mobilizing the lower
 36 classes who are today often in the thrall to
 37 fundamentalist populism” (73).

38 Herein lies the difficulty with the alt-
 39 right: they are fetishist in both the cynical
 40 and the fascist sense. In their cynical
 41 form, they distance themselves from
 42 their position via rational discourse and
 43 critical interpretation—when one listens
 44 to speeches given by Richard Spencer,
 45 as deplorable as his arguments sound,

these are not the ravings of a mad man
 but the carefully thought out and char-
 ismatic pseudo-intellectual statements
 of a “leader”—the movement, in other
 words, produces organic intellectuals. But
 in its fascist populist form, the movement
 clings to the other as fetish, disavowing
 the centrality of the class struggle, using
 the other—feminists and cultural Marx-
 ists, SJWs, and so forth—to displace this
 centrality. Therefore, rather than try to
 convince members of the alt-right, through
 rational critical interpretation, that their
 rage is simply displaced, they should be
 seen more so as a reactionary formation,
 the symptomatic product of the *defeat* of
 the Left by the liberal ruling class. It is for
 this reason that, if the alt-right is to be
 defeated, the challenge is to defeat the
 liberal ruling class. As Žižek puts it, for the
 Left, “the only true alternative is the one
 between itself and the liberal mainstream,
 the populist ‘radical’ Right being nothing
 but the *symptom* of liberalism’s inability to
 deal with the Leftist threat” (75).

**“Bernie Would Have Won!”:
 A Provisional Conclusion**

“Against the postmodernist suspicion of grand
 narratives, we need to reassert that, far from being
 isolated, contingent problems, these are all the
 effects of a single systemic cause: Capital.”

—Mark Fisher, *Capitalist Realism: Is There No
 Alternative?*

As I noted above, subversion and trans-
 gression have been embraced and diffused
 as virtues into the culture of postmodern
 capitalism. Formally and aesthetically,
 the alt-right follows a tradition that has a
 lineage going back to the modernist ethics
 of transgression and subversion. At the
 same time, their public demonstrations,
 and alarms about the anti-free speech

1 SJWs, particularly on university campuses,
 2 appear to have adopted the tactics of the
 3 radical New Left from the 1960s. While
 4 the ideological content of the alt-right is
 5 determinatively conservative, at a formal
 6 level, their tactics start to mimic the tradi-
 7 tional and New Left, especially when one
 8 of their chief characteristics is a hypervigi-
 9 lance toward breaking taboos. The alt-right,
 10 in this way, has more in common with the
 11 counterculture of May '68 than it does with
 12 anything resembling the traditional Right
 13 (Nagle 2017: 28). As well, the alt-right
 14 demonstrates that a formal transgression
 15 of the existing order is not necessarily one
 16 that moves in the direction of emancipa-
 17 tory and progressive change. As Nagle
 18 puts it, "disrespect for its own sake" mir-
 19 rors the modern avant-garde's ethic of "art
 20 for art's sake." The ethic of the alt-right
 21 has taken on a Nietzschean "cult of moral
 22 transgression," that even informed much
 23 of early (and in some cases, contemporary)
 24 post-structuralism (31). For the Marquis de
 25 Sade, the surrealists, R. D. Laing, and even
 26 in some sense in the writings of Deleuze
 27 and Guattari, madness and insanity are
 28 signs of nonconformity. The alt-right's
 29 celebration of the carnivalesque and the
 30 grotesque in practices such as "RIP Troll-
 31 ing" (trolling Facebook and Twitter pages
 32 of the recently deceased) demonstrates
 33 why, I claim, even anarchist practices of
 34 the carnivalesque, such as those described
 35 by Simon Critchley—advocating for "a new
 36 language of civil disobedience that com-
 37 bines street-theatre, festival, performance
 38 art and what might be descried as forms
 39 of non-violent warfare," and including
 40 things like "carnivalesque humour" (2007:
 41 123)—are easily co-optable by the alt-right
 42 Chan and meme culture. There is, in fact,
 43 nothing inherently radical or emancipatory
 44 about empty formal tactics such as these.
 45 As well, through websites like Breitbart

News, which even the mainstream mass
 media now seem to cite as a legitimate
 source of news, the alt-right also manages
 to incorporate public sphere and liberal
 critiques of elitism into its arsenal, allowing
 it to appear sympathetic to the concerns
 of the average Joe. What, then, is the
 solution?

Perhaps, rather than focus on a
 politics of subversion and transgression,
 it is time to build toward a new "common
 sense." If there is anything positive to
 say about the past decade of protest and
 Left politics, it is that a new language and
 narrative of understanding—a new form of
 cognitive mapping—seem capable of inter-
 pellating a new Left sensibility. Although
 OWS ultimately dissipated, its lasting
 effect has been a renewed discourse
 about the class struggle—the 99% versus
 the 1%, language that even mathematically
 makes visible the disparity between the
 two class positions, so that it does not
 appear as though we were talking about
 two antagonistic groups on a level playing
 field. What it emphasizes is the deep dis-
 parity in size and reach of the population,
 to show that the majority is proletarianized.
 Furthermore, another particularly youth-
 ful group of people is coalescing around
 figures like Sanders and Corbyn. One of
 Sanders's greatest achievements during
 his campaign for the Democratic nomina-
 tion was to help destigmatize the word
socialism. Many young people now openly
 identify as "socialists" (see Ehrenfreund
 2016 and Meyerson 2016). The term is
 beginning to lose the ideological baggage
 that it carried during the Cold War.

Out of the actual contradictions of
 capitalism, people are beginning to imag-
 ine real alternatives, and a new common
 sense is in fact forming, whose main
 antagonist has been less the alt-right and
 megalomaniacal figures like Trump than

1 figures at the center who, to maintain
 2 power, have slowly shifted over the
 3 period of neoliberalism increasingly to the
 4 right. They court the Right and the center
 5 in economic terms to defeat the Left.
 6 However, their apparent social liberalism
 7 is finally being undermined by their
 8 staunch economic conservatism. Paradoxically,
 9 it is the populist rhetoric of a socialist
 10 economic narrative, mixed with a right-wing
 11 racist and sexist social identity, that
 12 brought the masses toward Trump. Recall
 13 that much of Trump’s economic rhetoric
 14 included discussion of policies normally
 15 addressed by the Left (withdrawing from
 16 the TPP, for instance; criticisms of the
 17 mainstream mass media), but couched in
 18 inflammatory racist rhetoric about illegal
 19 immigrants and terrorists. Perhaps, then,
 20 if the socialist Left is so much of a threat
 21 to that liberal center—so much so that it
 22 sees a rightward shift as its only solution—
 23 and if apparent supporters of the alt-right
 24 are themselves courted by economic
 25 socialism, then maybe (just maybe) socialism
 26 (and dare we say “communism”) really
 27 is our new common sense.

28
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37
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