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

Three Contradictions of the Present Conjunctionure

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**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 revolu-  
 31 tion.” This phrase, which Žižek (2006: 363;  
 32 2009: 73; 2010: 152; 2014: 101) often attri-  
 33 butes to Walter Benjamin, signals what is  
 34 perhaps the most depressing aspect of the  
 35 rise of the alt-right as a protofascist move-  
 36 ment. It highlights the fact that “there was  
 37 a revolutionary potential, a dissatisfaction,  
 38 which the Left was not able to mobilize”  
 39 (Žižek 2010: 152), or in fact, that the revolu-  
 40 tionary potential of the Left failed by being  
 41 beaten out by the predominant liberal  
 42 status quo. There are, then, two ways to  
 43 understand the failure of the Left in the  
 44 wake of the 2008 crisis of capitalism: (1) a  
 45 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 Interna-  
 tional Monetary Fund) in its austerity talks,  
 the pro-Brexit vote in the UK, and Sand-  
 ers’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 pri-  
 marily 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 dif-  
 ferent 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 strug-  
 gle 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, oper-  
 ate 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-  
 11 wing 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) social-  
 26 ism (and dare we say “communism”) really  
 27 is our new common sense.

28  
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