



# Towards an understanding of creativity in independent music production

Daniel Walzer 

Music and Arts Technology, Indiana University-Purdue University, Indianapolis, IN

## ABSTRACT

For years, creativity has been a topic of interest for scholars in psychology, human development, and the arts. Research on creativity has produced a growing body of literature in the art and science of music production. Correspondingly, the entertainment sector has undergone what business and entrepreneurship scholars refer to as disintermediation or a reduction of skilled labor affecting the roles and responsibilities of those working in music production. Research on creativity with independent music production (IMP) is less common. Little is known about creativity by those without access to particular domains. As the music and recording industries remain untethered, an increase in autodidactic and incremental learning processes seems likely along with the growth of new models of independent music production. Using a Bourdieusian theoretical framework, the article analyzes two skill areas in IMP, experimentation, and critical listening, and calls for a more equitable and imaginative analysis of creativity.

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## Introduction

The past two decades have brought extensive upheaval to the music and entertainment industries; the disruption includes a shift from physical products to the web (Wikström 2020). The Internet and affordable technologies have decentralized long-standing power structures and decentralized geographical constraints on producing albums (Cummins-Russell and Rantisi 2012). I described this change using the phrase 'creative class', a new crop of independent music producers and consumers (Walzer 2017). In my work in higher education, I remain fascinated by how we can better understand and analyze creativity through a Do-It-Yourself (DIY) ethos of recording and producing music.

Analyzing creative practice in independent music production requires a different theoretical approach to the traditional models used in the entertainment industry. The music business functioned using a vertical hierarchy, where a few major labels controlled how albums were released and promoted (Wikström 2020). The difference

**CONTACT** Daniel Walzer  [dawalzer@iu.edu](mailto:dawalzer@iu.edu)

44 exists because independent artists create new material without significant support  
45 from labels, booking agents, and management. Wikström (2020, 9) explains:

46 [The] new music industry dynamics is characterized by high connectivity and little con-  
47 trol; music provided as a service; and increased amateur creativity. The driver of all  
48 these changes is primarily the development of digital information and communication  
49 technologies.

50 Hracz (2012a) traced the evolution of the music industry from its height in the  
51 late 1990s to significant restructuring and consolidation of the labels in part because  
52 of file sharing, advances in digital technology, peer-to-peer file-sharing networks, and  
53 the rise of the Internet. He (2012a, 446) writes:

54 During this period of transition...the Internet facilitated the development of a series of  
55 'gift economies' occupied by enthusiasts who changed digital commodities, including  
56 image,movie, and sound files, across Internet relay chat networks.

57 Like the major labels, recording studios also felt the brunt of digitalization. Record  
58 labels and commercial recording studios enjoyed a symbiotic relationship for decades.  
59 When digital technology became more affordable, independent musicians could record  
60 without needing to be in a major city like Los Angeles, London, New York, or Nashville.  
61 Watson (2014, 3) notes that 'the recording studio sector is now one in which the  
62 threat of closure for many large studios goes hand-in-hand with increased opportu-  
63 nities for individual producers'. Faced with lost revenues, recording studios closed,  
64 engineers were furloughed or fired, and the vertical hierarchy of the music industry  
65 broke apart— resulting in what Leyshon (2009) refers to as institutional thickness.  
66 Leyshon (2009, 1327) explains:

67 The process of vertical disintegration can also be observed within the studios themselves.  
68 In order to cope with the dilemma of selling studio space time in a falling market, and  
69 to respond to the ability to use smaller studio spaces to record and mix tracks, several  
70 studios have created what are known as 'project rooms'. These are small, self-contained  
71 rooms which studios rent on an annual basis to producers.

72 Even more so, technology allows independent artists to record at home, reduces  
73 the barrier for entry, and is the most common method for album production today  
74 (Hracz 2012a; Walzer 2017). There are downsides to the shift from the majors to the  
75 independents, however. As musicians transition from artists to entrepreneurs, Hracz  
76 (2012a, 456) argues that: 'the structure of contemporary independent music production  
77 is poorly understood'. Balancing the creative and the business aspect requires that  
78 independent artists understand how to multi-task and take on multiple responsibilities  
79 (Tarassi 2018).

80 Another development concerns the changing landscape of independent music  
81 communities. Kruse (2010, 625) refers to these communities as *scenes*, which 'describes  
82 both the geographical sites of local music practice and the economic and social  
83 networks in which participants are involved' (625). Technology and the Internet altered  
84 indie scenes too. She (2010, 625) observes:

85 Indie music can now be disseminated online, and people can connect easily across  
86 localities, regions, countries, and continents. As internet options for the discussion and  
87

90 sharing of indie music increase, the local spaces devoted to interaction around music  
91 are changing, and sometimes disappearing.

92 Kruse (2010, 626) cautions, however, that the Internet has not completely removed  
93 the DIY aesthetic completely.

94 Inexpensive forms of music production and dissemination, both within and across local-  
95 ities, were defining features of pre-internet scenes, as were the perceived interchange-  
96 ability of musicians and fans and the ability of scene participants to connect across  
97 geographical boundaries.

98  
99 Instead, the independent music scene is less binary and more fluid, eliciting a  
100 sense of structural ambiguity (Hracs 2012a; Kruse 2010).

### 101 102 **Bourdieu, disintermediation, and the IMP typology**

103  
104 Bürkner and Lange (2017) suggest that experimentation and trial and error form the  
105 basis for describing independent music production. They argue that 'a sociologically  
106 informed view is required to cope with the "social processing" of the technological  
107 shifts in music production' (Bürkner and Lange 2017, 36). Music production is often  
108 collaborative, and the advances in digital technology must be understood in the  
109 embedded social structures of particular communities (Bürkner and Lange 2017).  
110 Disintermediation is not confined to the influence of recording technology. An inde-  
111 pendent music industry provides a model of opportunity and competitiveness to a  
112 once top-heavy system once controlled by a few record labels. Bourdieu (1977, 184)  
113 explains:

114  
115 Economic power lies not in wealth but in the relationship between wealth and a field  
116 of economic relations, the constitution of which is inseparable from the development of  
117 a *body of specialized agents*, with specific interests; (original emphasis).

118 Bourdieu (1977) argues that there are modes of domination that affect cultural  
119 production. The dominant agents are objectified, accumulating symbolic and cultural  
120 capital. The more an agent is objectified, the more the symbolic capital and hierarchies  
121 are reinforced. Recording studios enjoyed clientele (major labels with big budgets)  
122 using specialized agents (audio engineers, producers, and session musicians). As the  
123 record companies' profit margins shrunk, so too did the budgets used to produce  
124 albums. Shrinking budgets put some skilled agents out of business and opened the  
125 door for independents to enter the marketplace. Tensions exist between those who  
126 were products of the old music business model and the independent music producers  
127 who never took part in that part of the industry in the first place (Hracs 2012b). After  
128 the decline of the traditional record deal because of lost revenues, many musicians  
129 were dropped from their label deals, now finding themselves competing for the same  
130 audiences as their DIY counterparts. (Hracs 2012b).

131 The tensions here bring to mind Bourdieu's (1993, 75) concept of symbolic capital,  
132 defined 'as economic or political capital that is disavowed, unrecognized and thereby  
133 recognized, hence legitimate, a "credit" with, under certain conditions, and always in  
134 the long run, guarantees "economic" profits'. The independent musician may never  
135

136 have sought commercial gain for their work, but relished approval from their peers.  
137 The once-successful commercial artist now seeks refuge 'by appealing to the values  
138 whereby the dominant figures accumulated their symbolic capital' (Bourdieu 1993,  
139 75). The issue at play is whether those who profited from the old music business  
140 industry are still considered specialized agents and whether their expertise has value  
141 when viewed from the lens of a community of independent artists and producers.

142 Bourdieu (1993) explains that the apparent producer is the author of creative work;  
143 the work has value and represents cultural production.

144 Since the late 1990s, technology has played at least some role in disturbing the  
145 traditional pipeline of album production and release. Using a Marxist framework, Arditì  
146 (2014) argues that increased digital technology devalues skilled labor (audio engineers,  
147 music producers, session musicians, etc.). Digital technology replaces skilled workers,  
148 the production cycle becomes disintermediated, or a 'removal of intermediaries from  
149 the supply chain' (Arditì 2014, 503). Arditì (2014) contends that the influence of digital  
150 technology is so pronounced, it affects music production in the studio (ex: tuning  
151 vocals, sampling, and fixing timing issues) and the relationship between capital and  
152 labor. The effects of disintermediation can also be felt in the relationships forged by  
153 entrepreneurs and independent musicians alike (Bernardo and Martins 2014).

## 155 **Changing sites and creative foci in independent music production**

156  
157 Analyzing disintermediation in independent music production requires a sensitivity  
158 to the changing sites and spaces where creative production happens. In music pro-  
159 duction research, scholars focus on the 'bedroom producer', ostensibly, someone  
160 making music with digital technologies at home in the confines of a bedroom or  
161 personal space (See Bell 2015; Hein 2017; Howlett 2012; Walzer 2017; Zagorski-Thomas  
162 2010). Recording at home, in the confines of one's private space, conjures up an  
163 image of autonomy, where the artist has total freedom to explore whatever ideas  
164 come to mind.

165 Auvinen (2016, 26) presents a hybrid model of *tracker/producer* as someone 'formed  
166 through a combination of composing, arranging, programming, vocal coaching and  
167 engineering. The idea of being a tracker clarifies the agency of the producer's role'.  
168 The home studio serves as a site of cultural production, and the producer engages  
169 in every aspect of music creation from the beginning to the end (Auvinen 2016).  
170 Auvinen's (2016) hybrid model of the tracker/producer reinforces two essential points.  
171 First, the person creating music takes on multiple roles in the album production  
172 process. Second, the artist's role is equal parts collaborative and independent. The  
173 site of cultural production might be in a bedroom, and it might be online. In Auvinen's  
174 (2016) case study, the producer is viewed as having more control and agency over  
175 the creative process because of their multifaceted use of technology.

176 A cursory glance at the home recording studio reveals strong user preferences for  
177 particular kinds of technology—precisely the visual layout of the digital audio work-  
178 station (DAW) for producers and audio engineers (D'Errico 2016; Marrington 2017;  
179 Marrington 2010). As an intermediary, DAWs facilitate a quicker experimentation  
180 process, and students with little formal music training find success in composing with  
181

182 presets and loops (Kardos 2012). The DAW and related technologies (ex: samplers,  
183 MIDI keyboards, portable recorders) promote a hybrid 'hyphenated' form of  
184 music-making, as songwriting seamlessly integrates with beat-making, recording,  
185 mixing, and performing (Tobias 2012).

186 The DAW, however, is not without some varying perspectives on workflow and  
187 creativity.

188 In his research on songwriting and music technology, Bennett (2018) concludes  
189 that the layout and graphical user interface (GUI) of particular software platforms  
190 cause songwriters to work vertically. The software display only shows a few bars at  
191 a time, lending itself to more loop-based writing and sonic layering. Born and Wilkie  
192 (2015) explain that for the past twenty years, DAWs have sought to replicate analogue  
193 processes in the digital realm—most commonly through horizontal time sequences  
194 moving from left to right.

195 It seems then that the technology commonly used in independent music produc-  
196 tion influences an artist's sonic and musical aesthetics, their relationship with analogue  
197 and digital workflows, and one's sense of time (Born and Wilkie 2015). Additional  
198 friction is exacerbated by the fact that the software-based plug-ins, or audio effects,  
199 used to manipulate sound, closely resemble their analogue counterparts, thus con-  
200 tributing to a sense of nostalgia concerning the recording process (Williams 2015).

## 202 Disintermediation and creativity

204 Disintermediation affects both the music industry's economic and labor structures; it  
205 also reveals a deeper connection between technology and creativity for independent  
206 artists. IMP happens both in and outside a proper recording studio. Watson (2014,  
207 41) contends that the plethora of recording and hardware options 'has enabled studio  
208 engineers to learn and experiment with recording and editing sounds outside of the  
209 studio environment...and not subject to the time constraints of a formal studio envi-  
210 ronment' (41). This means that professionals and amateurs have the time and space  
211 to experiment and explore creativity at a pace that suits them.

212 Self-paced experimentation allows a creative process to unfold. Rather than con-  
213 fining artistic practice to those with genius inspiration, explaining creativity is some-  
214 times more straightforward. Sternberg (2003, 90) argues that 'the study of creativity  
215 has always been tinged – some might say tainted – with associations to mythical  
216 beliefs. Perhaps the earliest accounts of creativity were based on divine intervention'  
217 (90). In his view, creativity is 'the ability to produce novel, high-quality, task-appropriate  
218 products' (Sternberg 2003, 105). Therefore, the psychological study of creativity must  
219 consider a range of perspectives, both conscious and unconscious, and the social and  
220 personal motivations of those engaged in creative practice (Sternberg 2003).

221 Czikszenmihalyi (1996, 6) explains:

222 Creativity results from the interaction of a system composed of three elements: a culture  
223 that contains symbolic rules, a person who brings novelty into the symbolic domain, and  
224 a field of experts who recognize and validate the innovation. All three are necessary for  
225 a creative idea, product, or discovery to take place.  
226  
227

228 The systems model of creativity includes three parts: 'Domain: a set of symbolic  
229 rules and procedure; field: Individuals acting as gatekeepers of the domain, and the  
230 person' (Czikszentmihalyi 1996, 27 and 28). Using these taxonomies, Czikszentmihalyi  
231 (1996, 28) concludes:

232 [Creativity] is any act, idea, or product that changes an existing domain, or that transforms  
233 an existing domain into a new one. And the definition of a creative person is: someone  
234 whose thoughts or actions change a domain, or establish a new domain.  
235

236 Thompson (2019, 86) applies a similar analysis of creativity and domain in the  
237 recording studio. He surmises that 'the domain of commercial record production...  
238 does not exist as a separate entity; it is intricately connected with the other parts of  
239 the creative system' (86). He outlines the commercial record production domains  
240 across three areas—the musical, the technical, and the sociocultural. Skills gained in  
241 these areas happen formally and informally and include the persons engaged in the  
242 activity both in and outside the studio (Thompson 2019). Pras and Guastavino (2011,  
243 77) further classify the role of the producer and audio engineer across three domains:  
244 'mission, skills, and interaction'.

245 over the past fifteen years, scholarly writings on studio recording practice have  
246 focused on the systems model of creativity (McIntyre 2008, 2012;), sites of cultural  
247 production (Bates 2012; Bennett and Bates 2018; Watson 2014), decision-making and  
248 roles (Lefford and Thompson 2018), and interdisciplinary theories of creativity (Slater  
249 and Martin 2012; Thompson 2019; Zagorski-Thomas 2014). Other scholars move away  
250 from the idealized notion of the recording studio as a specialized place where hits  
251 are made. The music and entertainment industries' economic realities make running  
252 a full-service commercial facility a daunting proposition—even less common among  
253 for those that generate significant profits. As expressed, the result of cheaper and  
254 faster digital technologies and economic downturns is that recording studios close,  
255 staff lose their jobs, and people stop spending money on physical products.

256 Bell (2018) notes that the skills customarily associated with audio engineering now  
257 coexist with the broader set of competencies in modern music production. The DAW,  
258 a commonly used tool in "studios", functions the same way as an instrument. Bell's  
259 (2018, 65) criticism of 'so-called engineering skills such as operating a DAW like  
260 Pro-Tools' are no longer considered specialized. Put a different way; the minimum  
261 entry point for creative practice for independent producers is that they know how  
262 to use a DAW to play it like an instrument. The requisite skills needed for artistic  
263 production are different now. Draper (2013, n.p.) acknowledges this. He writes:

264 The idea of a 'record producer' is a slippery one... While there may be a role for divisions  
265 of labour under certain circumstances, post computer revolution there is a lop-sided  
266 working continuum for producers of music: from laptop music making, to home studios  
267 and social networks, through to increasingly rarer opportunities to engage directly with  
268 the promise of panoramic control rooms, refined acoustic spaces, concept funding, and  
269 professional distribution and promotion.  
270

## 271 Creativity and problem solving

272 Researchers believe that creativity reveals itself through incremental steps, many of  
273 which occur after a bout of problem-solving (Sawyer 2006; Weisberg 1992). Weisberg

274 (1992, xiii) writes that ‘creative works begin with what has been done in the past,  
275 and they go beyond the past in logical and understandable ways’ (xiii). For indepen-  
276 dent music producers, the problem-solving mechanism is experienced in learning  
277 new software. Bell (2018, 91) describes one example of problem-solving in music  
278 production in what he refers to as the ‘click and consequence method’. In the case  
279 study presented, the subject spent hours learning to use a new digital audio work-  
280 station. Using the mouse, the person gradually learned more about the program and  
281 the creative choices available. Jumping right into the learning, Bell (2018, 91) explains  
282 that ‘he uses his mouse to explore an option in the program, evaluates the conse-  
283 quences of his mouse click, and then proceeds accordingly’. A DAW-facilitated process  
284 slows down the urgency to decide, lowers the pressure of making the ‘right’ decision,  
285 and allows for a more relaxed flow of ideas. In the old model of record production,  
286 the producer made an artistic decision. The audio engineer fulfilled another crucial  
287 role, and the session musicians created arrangements and performed under stressful  
288 conditions.

289 one advantage of digital technology is the undo command. For example, if the  
290 mouse clicks produce unwanted results, a person can select the undo command  
291 (either by mouse click or keyboard shortcut), which allows them to return to a pre-  
292 vious state. This process removes the pressure to get something right the first time.  
293 The trial-and-error method works well when the stakes are low. The person builds  
294 their skills through an iterative trial-and-error approach. In Bell’s (2018) case study,  
295 the artist used the click and consequence method to apply effects, create arrange-  
296 ments, and compose music. Here, problem-solving is a low-risk, high-reward process.  
297 Creativity is measured by the connection between the person’s knowledge and the  
298 problem itself. Weisberg (1992, 122) explains:

299 Problem solving begins with continuity, a match between the problem and the indi-  
300 vidual’s knowledge, which can result in the retrieval of a possible solution. Effective  
301 problem solving requires detailed knowledge of the domain in question, and there is  
302 little evidence for spontaneous transfer based on remote analogies.

303  
304 Bell’s analysis of the click and consequence approach suggests that much of inde-  
305 pendent music production is autodidactic; the same can be found in computer music  
306 and music technology research (Born and Devine 2015; Collins 2010; Kardos 2018).  
307 Knowledge and skill acquisition encompass more than merely clicking a mouse;  
308 creativity manifests itself through a few steps, each requiring evaluation, and a com-  
309 mitted decision. It is also important to remember that formal apprenticeships in  
310 recording studios are less common—the trend these days is to mimic such patterns  
311 in audio engineering programs in colleges and universities (see Bielmeier 2014;  
312 Bourbon 2020).

### 314 **An open concept of critical audio listening**

315  
316 We can conceptualize creativity as a series of modest steps leading to greater insight,  
317 and eventually, a finished product. The problem with incremental progress is that it  
318 does not account for the expense of recording time and hiring skilled laborers. Watson  
319 (2014, 42) states:

320 one of the major constraints on the ability of musicians, recording artists, producers and  
321 engineers to be creative and experiment in the studio are the time constraints associated  
322 with limited budgets and the high cost of time in the studio

323 Imagine a scenario where an artist books time in a professional studio. If recording  
324 sessions happen in larger studios, with freelance audio engineers, artists can likely  
325 expect to incur personal costs to produce the record. The issue is that slow, method-  
326 ical experimentation helps independent artists use their ears and decide how their  
327 project ought to sound. Critical listening is not possible when time is of the essence,  
328 and the cost and stakes are high. Likewise, the artist relies heavily on the producer  
329 or engineer's expertise to use the DAW and recording equipment accurately, which  
330 reduces the artist into a more passive role. Critical listening occurs by those more  
331 active in physical production. There are scenarios where artists record their parts at  
332 home and then collaborate with more experienced engineers to mix and master a  
333 record. There is no substitute for someone taking the hours needed to experiment  
334 in a low-pressure setting. An 'indie' producer can train their ears to understand signal  
335 flow better, mixing concepts, and basic audio theory. The training actively happens  
336 over time, by emphasizing creativity rather than following prescriptive methods found  
337 in textbooks.

338 Elsewhere (Walzer 2015), I analyzed the lack of coherent metrics to assess the  
339 essential skills needed for critical audio listening in higher education. While many  
340 audio engineering programs in HE include technical ear training (musical and  
341 non-musical) as part of a degree, there remains little consensus on how best to test  
342 whether someone has the requisite skills needed to track and mix. Though a stan-  
343 dardized set of critical listening rubrics is not possible, one has to wonder how novices  
344 discern frequencies, musical arrangements, audio effects, specific genres, and the  
345 physical properties of sound. Elmosnino's (2019) survey of critical listening materials  
346 reveals that some institutions encourage the use of mental representations in mixing  
347 with modest success. Similarly, Kardos (2015) promotes critical listening through the  
348 lens of timbral gestures, a deeper connection to the historical and contemporary  
349 characteristics of sound in mixing.

350 outside of formal education, many audio engineers develop critical listening com-  
351 petencies through experience and years of practice. A cursory online search for critical  
352 listening materials shows there to be a market replete with courses and tutorials,  
353 supplementary resources, and YouTube videos on the subject. Academic and  
354 audio-related publishers continue to publish helpful resources that address critical  
355 listening in sundry ways (see Corey 2017; Everest 2006; Gordon 2015; Moylan 2014;  
356 Sound Gym 2020). A complete review of these materials is beyond what this article  
357 can address. A provocative question to ask, though, is: What about the independent  
358 producer? How do they learn these skills if they lack access to higher education? Yes,  
359 an abundance of third-party resources exists. An autodidact may do well to purchase  
360 books, watch videos online, and practice by downloading multi-track mix stems and  
361 ask questions from experts in online forums.

362 Independent music producers now occupy at least two roles—that of the audio  
363 engineer, and most times, the artist. How does the nascent producer-engineer learn  
364 how to treat a room, and make the most out of their recording space? If the model  
365



366 of critical listening draws its inspiration from the antiquated model of pristine acoustic  
367 spaces, large-format analogue consoles, and skilled labor, then how does the next  
368 generation gain such expertise in a domain that is nearly extinct? Put another way,  
369 if the domain (the recording studio, agents of creativity, rules and responsibilities of  
370 skilled laborers) is evasive, what options does the independent artist-producer-engineer  
371 hybrid have to further their skills? It is not enough to suggest that without access,  
372 nothing can be done to help those with a desire to learn. In a 2007 article for *Mix*,  
373 Petersen interviewed engineers from Gateway Mastering, Avatar Studios (now closed),  
374 and other high-end mastering facilities. Predictably, the piece takes on a technocratic  
375 stance, using industry jargon and digressing into discussions about gear found in  
376 those same high-end facilities. One has to wonder what critical listening means with-  
377 out access to the sites where such activities occur. Landr and eMastered offer  
378 cloud-based mastering services where clients upload finished mixes, choose a few  
379 parameters and receive a finished master recording in a few minutes. Though  
380 cloud-based mastering is a relatively new phenomenon, it remains to be seen how  
381 it will change the creative pipeline for independent producers.

### 382 383 **What's next for creative IMP?** 384

385 Analysis of independent music production remains fluid and disruptive. As expressed  
386 throughout the article, many levels of the music and entertainment industries no  
387 longer promote a traditional model of creative practice based on lucrative recording  
388 contracts, large budgets, and a public invested in buying physical products. The  
389 Internet and advances in recording technology have simultaneously change our defi-  
390 nition of skilled labor and provided new opportunities to grow creative networks.  
391 Disintermediation means that the longstanding vertical and horizontal structures of  
392 the creative industries no longer exist. Also, because of an economic downturn caused  
393 by a significant global health crisis, the future remains precarious for the music and  
394 entertainment industries. Recent economic reports from the UK and Australia predict  
395 it will take several years for the live music sector to recover from the effects of  
396 Cov ID-19 (Brandle 2020).

397 Creativity is a stepwise process based on small, incremental successes and insights.  
398 The technical and practical application of knowledge reflects an intricate relationship  
399 between the past and present, the stakeholders engaged in an activity, the idea, and  
400 the evaluation of the concept by interested parties. Likewise, in the recording studio,  
401 music and technical expertise remain embedded in the relationships between skilled  
402 laborers, namely producers and audio engineers. That model of creativity cannot exist  
403 in a vacuum. Such an enterprise exists as part of a more massive structure. Yet, ten-  
404 sions still exist between what is creative and what is not. The Bourdieusian theory  
405 of artistic practice reveals a fraught relationship between art and commerce, author-  
406 ship, and the expertise gained from undertaking a creative endeavor. Authorship is  
407 one type of cultural production. What remains unclear, as it pertains to independent  
408 music production, is what kind of relationship exists among the different parts of the  
409 endeavor—independence, music, and production—each as separate entities. More  
410 research is needed to understand how the aspects of this triangular structure define  
411 creativity independently.

412 The hierarchies of cultural production and capital become less apparent when  
413 skilled laborers become redundant in an industry whose business models either col-  
414 lapse or become replaced by artificial intelligence. When using a phrase like 'creative  
415 practice' to describe how an independent music producer functions, one must consider  
416 whether the person identifies as independent by choice (rejection of capitalist ide-  
417 ologies) or because of their irrelevance. Either way, how human beings gauge expertise  
418 and creativity hinges on undertaking more research into the breadth and scope of  
419 independent music production. Rather than viewing it as a byproduct of an industry  
420 gone by the wayside, it is now more commonplace for musicians and producers to  
421 occupy a space dictated by their own aims rather than those of a major label or  
422 commercial recording studio.

423 We understand more about how independent music producers work through their  
424 trial-and-error processes. Many of these experiments can be found in a DAW. Such  
425 technologies offer immediate results and a way to correct mistakes through the undo  
426 command. Equally prescient is the concept of low-risk/high-reward goals. With a  
427 mouse click, an artist that embodies multiple identities (tracker, mix engineer, pro-  
428 ducer, musician, promoter) makes decisions that influence the production. Interestingly,  
429 the skills needed to be an independent music producer, especially in popular music,  
430 are more integrated. Fluency in digital technology is the most crucial element required  
431 for music production. Other skills, though, seem less defined and are, sometimes,  
432 opaque. The audio education community has not done a sufficient job of addressing  
433 the concept of critical listening. What might have once been learned on the job, or  
434 through formal internships and apprenticeships, is less likely to happen formally.  
435 Critical listening skills require multiple levels of awareness. In rare instances, young  
436 producers can learn these skills in high-end recording studios; the majority, though,  
437 are out of luck.

438 Not content to give up; the next step demands that practitioners need to reimagine  
439 what critical listening is and what it *could* be. In particular, educators tasked with  
440 mentoring students cannot expect that their cohort will have the same level of access  
441 to high-end recording equipment in professionally designed rooms. Unfortunately, an  
442 easy answer to the critical listening dilemma remains elusive. Independent music  
443 producers can use their imagination, procure many online resources to build their  
444 listening chops, and continue to experiment in ways suitable for their projects and  
445 personal interests.

## 447 Conclusion

449 There are two sides of disruption, one positive and one negative. Technology changed  
450 the way records were made. Shrinking profit margins, interconnected web networks,  
451 and a merging of the major labels altered the way the music business functions. The  
452 downside of this disintermediation is that skilled laborers and professional sites of  
453 production were made redundant or forced to close altogether. The upside of disin-  
454 termediation is that the *possibilities* of creative practice now extend to a larger group  
455 of interested stakeholders. Amateurs and professionals, producers and musicians, those  
456 with label support and those without, all have a chance to express their ideas using  
457

458 robust and less-expensive technology. The way scholars analyze and explore creative  
 459 models in record production is not shrouded in secrecy. The barriers of participation  
 460 are removed as people all over the world can log onto dedicated websites to collab-  
 461 orate on tracks and release their material.

462 The insights revealed by creative practice are also nurtured in the next generation  
 463 of artists and producers, many who seek training in music production and audio  
 464 engineering at the university level. If there is a clarion call to be found here for audio  
 465 and music technology educators, we must look for ways to expand accessibility in  
 466 independent music production. We must look for ways to humanize and demystify  
 467 how creative practice works. We must fight for a fair and just model that encourages  
 468 creativity in every form—fully realized or messy. one way this happens is by under-  
 469 standing how the forces of technology, social and artistic capital, and *access* breed  
 470 innovation rather than the destruction of the arts sector. Future research must rec-  
 471 ognize that independent music production is robust and fluid; the skills and work  
 472 are honed through autodidactic means including experimentation, collaboration, and  
 473 socially embedded practice. The line between amateur and professional is thin—per-  
 474 haps intentionally so. Honing a deeper understanding of IMP must acknowledge that  
 475 creativity is less about spontaneous bursts of novelty by those with access to the  
 476 elite networks of cultural production, and more about a stepwise, egalitarian, and  
 477 open-ended process of discovery and artistry.

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## 483 Notes on contributor

485 *Daniel Walzer* is an Assistant Professor of Music and Arts Technology at Indiana University-Purdue  
 486 University Indianapolis (IUPUI). Originally trained as a percussionist, Walzer maintains an active  
 487 career as a composer, performer, and audio production specialist. Walzer's research and writings  
 488 on music technology appear in *Leonardo Music Journal*, *Journal of Music, Technology & Education*,  
 489 *Music Educators Journal*, and in numerous edited collections. He is the co-editor of *Audio  
 Education: Theory, Culture, and Practice* (w/Dr. Mariana Lopez) on Focal Press.

## 491 ORCID

493 Daniel Walzer  <http://orcid.org/0000-0003-3826-1356>

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