

An Invitation to Modeling: Building a Community with Shared Explicit Practices

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38 Abstract

39 Models and the process of modeling are fundamental to the discipline of biology, and therefore should be
40 incorporated into undergraduate biology courses. In this essay, we draw upon the literature and our own
41 teaching experiences to provide practical suggestions for how to introduce models and modeling to
42 introductory biology students. We begin by demonstrating the ubiquity of models in biology, including
43 representations of the process of science itself. We advocate for a model of the process of science that
44 highlights parallel tracks of mathematical and experimental modeling investigations. With this
45 recognition, we suggest ways in which instructors can call students' attention to biological models more
46 explicitly by using modeling language, facilitating metacognition about the use of models, and employing
47 model-based reasoning. We then provide guidance on how to begin to engage students in the process of
48 modeling, encouraging instructors to scaffold a progression to mathematical modeling. We use the Hardy-
49 Weinberg Equilibrium model to provide specific pedagogical examples that illustrate our suggestions. We
50 propose that by making even a small shift in the way models and modeling are discussed in the
51 classroom, students will gain understanding of key biological concepts, practice realistic scientific
52 inquiry, and build quantitative and communication skills.

53 Overview

54 The central role of models and modeling in scientific practice should be reflected in the ways we
55 teach science. Teaching with models and modeling provides an opportunity to engage students in
56 authentic scientific practices. Indeed, national reports and proposed standards for improving biology
57 education have advocated for the development of competencies and skills related to using models and
58 modeling (AAMC-HHMI, 2009; AAAS, 2011; NGSS, 2013; College Board, 2015). Biologists use
59 models to study complex systems, make predictions, test ideas which are experimentally difficult or
60 impossible to test, develop conceptual frameworks, and generate causal relationships (Odenbaugh, 2005;
61 Svoboda and Passmore, 2011). Biologists' use of models to communicate ideas and explore theories is an
62 integral component of the scientific process (Tomasi, 1988; Gilbert, 1991; Lander, 2010; Jungck, 2011),
63 and as computational power and access to data increases, biologists are able to employ quantitative
64 models more frequently and to greater effect. For students, working with models can enhance
65 understanding of key biological concepts, provide practice in realistic modes of scientific inquiry, and
66 build quantitative and communication skills (Lehrer and Schauble, 2005; Garfunkel and Montgomery,
67 2016). However, it can seem a daunting challenge to incorporate the teaching of these skills into already
68 overcrowded course curricula.

69 *Who we are and our goals for this essay*

70 We, the authors, are an interdisciplinary group of biologists, mathematicians, mathematical
71 biologists, and education researchers who came together for a working group at the National Institute for
72 Mathematical and Biological Synthesis (NIMBioS), organized by the leadership team from the
73 Quantitative Undergraduate Biology Education and Synthesis project (QUBES; <https://qubeshub.org>;
74 Donovan et al., 2015), to address the challenges of teaching modeling. This working group has provided
75 us the opportunity over two years to explore the education research on modeling, share how modeling is
76 applied and taught in our various disciplines, and examine our individual teaching experiences for best
77 practices. In the process, we have become more thoughtful in our practice and have developed more

78 granular, nuanced, and inclusive definitions of models and modeling in a broad sense, and mathematical
79 modeling in particular (Eaton et al., 2017). This has led to insight about how we might improve our
80 approach to teaching with models in biology courses, which we share in this essay. We have three main
81 goals in mind:

- 82 1. We ask readers who may not have previously thought of themselves as modelers to consider
83 that models and modeling are ubiquitous in biology, and, as a result, *we are all modelers*.
- 84 2. We ask those new to modeling, and modeling veterans alike, to use our suggested
85 pedagogical strategies, beginning with explicitly using the language of models and the
86 process of modeling in the classroom in order to raise student awareness of the role of models
87 and modeling in biology.
- 88 3. We ask instructors to begin to incorporate models and modeling activities in the classroom to
89 lay the foundation for incorporating more mathematical modeling both within courses, and,
90 eventually, throughout the biology curriculum.

91 What is a model? What is modeling?

92 For clarity, we will begin by defining our terms (Box 1). Our working definition is that a *model* is
93 a simplified, abstract or concrete representation of relationships and/or processes in the real world,
94 constructed for some purpose (Eaton et al., 2017). Model representations can be experiential (physical
95 manipulatives, animations/simulations, experiments), visual (schematics, diagrams, flowcharts), verbal
96 (hypotheses, predictions, descriptions, assumptions), numerical (data tables, graphs), or symbolic
97 (equations, formulas). The symbolic representation, either alone or in combination with one of the other
98 representations, is what is usually described as a mathematical model (Gilbert, 2004; Eaton et al., 2017).
99 Whatever the representation, these all share features as models. The representation is chosen based on the
100 problem at hand. For example, genes can be represented in different ways: a molecular biologist might
101 use a visual gene diagram that accounts for the mechanisms of gene expression, whereas a population
102 geneticist might incorporate genes symbolically into a mathematical model to understand the evolutionary

103 processes occurring (Figure 1). Both of these gene models are abstractions, including some details and
104 leaving others out, appropriate to the desired application, question being asked, or concept being taught.
105 In other words, they are appropriate to their “model utility,” the purpose of constructing and using a
106 model, an important notion since not all models are appropriate for all purposes (Odenbaugh, 2005;
107 Svoboda and Passmore, 2011). Table 1 describes five uses of models in biology, giving examples for
108 each.

109 Models are ubiquitous in biology, taking each of the aforementioned forms (Figure 1): a physical
110 model of the DNA double helix, a visual model of the organelles within a eukaryotic cell, or a
111 mathematical model of population growth. Hypotheses can be thought of as models because they are
112 verbal representations of relationships. Experiments themselves are also models as they are based on
113 interventions and/or observations of the real world by a scientist. They reflect a particular model of the
114 world and are not the real world itself. Or, consider the figures in an introductory biology text; most, if
115 not all, of them are visual model representations of biological concepts. As such, figures need to be
116 viewed critically in terms of intent: Which features of the model were chosen to be foregrounded? Which
117 features were chosen to be backgrounded or left out entirely? Does the figure represent a summary of
118 features, which collectively have no actual counterpart in the real world? Thus, only a small shift is
119 needed to see that models are everywhere in biology.

120 Having defined models as representations, *modeling* is then an iterative process in which a model
121 is proposed, explored, and refined (Figure 2). Modeling allows us to explore and explain complex, real-
122 world problems. Scientific practices such as experimental or observational studies are one form of
123 modeling (right side of Figure 2), as is mathematical modeling (left side of Figure 2). Biological systems
124 present extremely complicated and difficult problems, and with the increase in computational power,
125 mathematical modeling is proving to be a valuable tool for exploring these problems.

126 Process of modeling as process of science

127 In Figure 2, we use model-based reasoning (Windschitl et al., 2008) as a framework to show that
128 the process of modeling is an instance of the process of science. We argue that various types of modeling
129 present different, and complementary ways, to reason about scientific questions. Understanding of a
130 biological concept may be enhanced by exploring and reasoning about the concept with models. In this
131 framework, to address a biological problem with a model we must identify the problem in its biological
132 context, organize the relevant information (what we know and what we would like to know), ask
133 questions, and formulate hypotheses (Figure 2, top). We then seek evidence through experimental or
134 mathematical modeling (Figure 2, middle, discussed below). Finally we analyze the results, constructing
135 an argument for a biological interpretation of the results within a larger disciplinary conceptual
136 framework that is then subjected to review by the scientific community (Figure 2, bottom). Feedback
137 from other scientists leads to a reframing of the biological problem itself, kicking off the next iteration of
138 the entire process. Within this framework, experimental modeling (Figure 2, right) and mathematical
139 modeling (Figure 2, left) are two parallel tracks that can be pursued when seeking evidence. While we
140 highlight experiments in Figure 2, we note that observational field studies, evolutionary reconstructions,
141 and meta-analyses are other modes of investigation carried out by biologists that can be found under the
142 umbrella of model-based reasoning.

143 When designing either an experimental model or a mathematical model, a key step is deciding
144 which aspects of the biological system are relevant to the question and which can be safely ignored, or in
145 modeling terms, making simplifying assumptions (Figure 2, middle). We might, of course, be wrong, but
146 the intentional process of identifying the assumptions and explaining why they are acceptable for this
147 particular situation and question is itself one way to learn about the system (Levins, 1966). Note that in
148 the experimental modeling process (Figure 2, right track), simplifying assumptions include the choice of a
149 tractable experimental system such as a model organism that is well-suited to study the phenomenon of
150 interest and easy to grow in the lab (*e.g.*, *Tetrahymena* for the study of telomeres; Kain, 2009). For

151 experimental modeling, we next select the appropriate materials and methods, bearing in mind the
152 advantages and disadvantages of each, and design the appropriate positive and negative controls. On the
153 other hand, to construct the mathematical model (Figure 2, left track), we progress by mathematizing the
154 biological problem, starting with choices about the type of mathematical technique to use (*e.g.*,
155 deterministic vs. probabilistic) and then creating a mathematical representation of the system containing
156 some (but not all!) elements, interactions, and mechanisms (formalized as variables, parameters, and
157 formula or equations). The next step in the process is to run the experiment or explore the mathematical
158 model, generating data to analyze.

159 Model validation (Figure 2, dashed arrow) occurs when experimental and mathematical modeling
160 results are compared to assess each model's utility and accuracy. When validating model results, we ask
161 "Does this choice of model give us explanatory power to make sense of the biological phenomena we are
162 observing?", "Does the model allow us to make predictions of what might happen in areas we have not
163 yet explored?", "Does it promote further inquiry?". If we fail to validate the model, we can go back to
164 our experimental or mathematical model and refine it by modifying the experiment or observational study
165 in the former case or by changing the parameters, variables, formulas, or equations in the latter case. It is
166 worth noting that this process of formulating hypotheses, building models, constructing an argument from
167 data, and refining models is a process of theorizing from observation and requires genuine creativity
168 (Windschitl et al. 2008).

169 In summary, model-based reasoning is not just a pedagogical approach, it is an important part of
170 the process of science. Windschitl and colleagues (2008) stress the idea of viewing science as the process
171 of creating and refining explanatory models of the world. The model-based reasoning view of science is
172 very general and encompasses the practice of seeking multiple lines of evidence in order to choose one
173 hypothesis from a set of competing hypotheses. It gives us a framework to draw parallels between
174 multiple lines of reasoning (mathematical and experimental). Thus, as can be seen in Figure 2,

175 mathematical models and experimental models are both different ways to construct evidence to test a
176 hypothesis, with parallels even within the individual steps of each. *As scientists, we are all modelers.*

177 *Aspects of modeling that become hidden in expert practice*

178 When we as scientists and mathematicians use models, mathematical or otherwise, we recognize
179 key features of the modeling process that define the utility and value of models to solving biological
180 problems. For example, we understand that the model is a simplified version of the biological system
181 under study, and as such, it was built with a set of assumptions and carries with it certain limitations.
182 Those assumptions may be appropriate under some circumstances and inappropriate under others (Levins,
183 1966). Limitations mean that the model may describe one aspect of the biological system well but neglect
184 or perform poorly on another aspect. Understanding the assumptions and limitations of a model allows us
185 to infer under what circumstances a model is useful. For example, when biologists recognize a box
186 representation as a gene (Figure 1B), we do not think this is actually what a gene looks like and can
187 assimilate this model with a different representation of a gene, such as a chromosomal diagram, or the
188 abstraction of genes and alleles in the Hardy-Weinberg Equilibrium mathematical model (Figure 1C-E).
189 Or, when a textbook diagram of a gene includes a start codon but not a stop codon, as experts in
190 discipline-specific knowledge, we can fill in that missing piece. *When we become familiar with a model,*
191 *its assumptions and limitations may recede from our immediate consciousness, and become part of the*
192 *implicit “expert knowledge” and skills we bring to bear in our discipline.* In addition, as experts, our
193 model-based reasoning skills make us adept at layering disciplinary information on models and using
194 models to explore problems. For example, we can visualize population growth as a logistic curve,
195 consider the impact a change in variables would have on the shape of the curve, and interpret what this
196 means to a population. These layers of understanding and intuitive use of models are based on our expert
197 knowledge of the discipline, these models, and the modeling process. However, even though science
198 students are constantly making mental models as they make sense of the world (Gilbert, 2004; Louca and
199 Zacharia, 2012), they are less likely to have the depth of scientific modeling experience or understanding

200 of the norms of disciplinary reasoning with models. Modeling instruction should encourage students to
201 reflect on: (1) the attributes of models, (2) the strategies for their use, and (3) the connections between
202 models, data, and inferences about biological systems. Furthermore, by describing experiments as models,
203 students should have a better understanding of what the experiment is doing, *i.e.*, experiments are giving
204 them as much information as their tools were able to measure, but the results still may not be the complete
205 picture of reality. That is why scientists use different techniques, such as complementing *in vitro*
206 experiments with those conducted *in vivo*.

207 *What do students need to do to become mathematical modelers?*

208 Mathematical modeling requires a complex suite of skills including higher-order thinking,
209 quantitative skills, communication and collaboration skills, and foundational knowledge of the biological
210 problem. Furthermore, as previously mentioned, modeling is an iterative process – there is no fixed end
211 since models are constantly revised. To develop proficiency in modeling, students must have multiple
212 opportunities to practice. However, few curricular resources are designed to provide this opportunity,
213 especially at introductory levels (NRC, 2003; AAMC-HHMI, 2009). Yet, the time invested in teaching
214 and learning mathematical modeling develops skills that increase student success in any discipline (P21
215 Partnership, 2009; AAAS, 2011; Garfunkel and Montgomery, 2016; Schuchardt and Schunn, 2016). Here
216 we share ideas and best practices we have gleaned from the literature and our experience to make
217 incorporating modeling activities more feasible.

218 **Recommendations for incorporating models and modeling in the** 219 **classroom**

220 Our working group includes both veterans and relative newcomers to modeling whose experience
221 in teaching modeling ranges from in-depth testing and refining of techniques to just recently trying these
222 ideas for the first time. The discussion of our collective experiences has given us a more practical
223 understanding of the problems that students and faculty face when including modeling as part of the
224 curriculum. For the rest of the examples presented in this essay, we focus primarily on lower level courses

225 where exploring models and modeling is not necessarily an emphasis. Skills learned there can translate to
226 upper division courses specifically focused on mathematical modeling, which present a different, but
227 overlapping, set of challenges. Expanding students' experiences with models and modeling early in their
228 course of study will increase their understanding of biological concepts and prepare them for more
229 advanced mathematical modeling in the future (AAAS, 2011; Schuchardt and Schunn, 2016). Because
230 mathematical modeling can be a complex and lengthy process which requires time not often available in
231 our biology curriculum, we do not expect that in every course, students will engage in the entire modeling
232 process from conception to dissemination (Figure 2, top to bottom). Instead, we suggest that having
233 students engage in more granular "modeling activities" (individual arrows of Figure 2) forms part of a
234 longer learning trajectory that *can* be supported in every class; an approach we advocated in Eaton et al.
235 (2017). Although we acknowledge that breaking down modeling into individual activities does not
236 provide students with an experience of the full modeling process, it does provide opportunities to gain
237 needed skills (for more detail, see Eaton et al., 2017). Our suggestions for increasing student facility with
238 models and the modeling process in lower division biology courses includes the following:

- 239 1. Being explicit about model use, model utility, and the modeling process by adopting
240 consistent and detailed modeling language and concepts in the classroom (such as
241 assumptions and limitations; Brewé, 2008);
- 242 2. Facilitating metacognition by giving students opportunities to reflect about models and
243 modeling to help them develop an awareness and evaluation of their thinking (Schwarz and
244 White, 2005; Papaevripidou et al., 2007);
- 245 3. Using an anchor, a student-accessible concrete base to launch the modeling process (Schwarz
246 et al., 2009);
- 247 4. Encouraging students to ask their own questions (Jungck, 1985; Peterson and Jungck, 1988;
248 Rothstein and Santana, 2011);

- 249 5. Scaffolding the progression to mathematical modeling by practicing moving between model
250 representations (experiential, verbal, visual, numerical, and symbolic), and by refining
251 models (Mayes et al., 2013; Eaton et al., 2017); and
- 252 6. Providing opportunities for students to develop their modeling abilities through repeated
253 practice (Weisstein, 2011).

254 We placed these recommendations in this particular order so that they progress from relatively easy to
255 implement for newcomers to modeling to more advanced activities for those who wish to deepen their
256 practice. Of course, as with the process of modeling and process of science, the real-life implementation
257 of these pedagogical strategies may come in a different order and can be messy; consider these a menu of
258 options. In the sections that follow, we flesh out these recommendations in the context of the commonly
259 taught Hardy-Weinberg Equilibrium (HWE) population genetics model (Soderberg and Price, 2003).

260 *Be explicit by using modeling language and concepts*

261 A simple step we can take to increase students' awareness of the utility of models is to be explicit
262 in our language about models and the process of modeling throughout the course (Brewer, 2008;
263 Windschitl et al. 2008) as follows:

- 264 ● First, draw students' attention to the models used in class (*e.g.*, Figure 1 and textbook figures).
- 265 ● Show the parallels between the process of modeling and process of science (Figure 2).
- 266 ● In a think-write-pair-share exercise, have students write and discuss their own definitions of
267 models and modeling. Write some of these on the board and together develop the definitions that
268 we have proposed in this essay (Box 1).
- 269 ● Verbally describe the assumptions used to build a particular model and how that relates to the
270 limitations of the model.
- 271 ● Compare different models of the same phenomenon, reviewing how models have been revised
272 through time and exploring connections between biological and mathematical or statistical
273 models.

- 274 • Include the process of modeling in course learning objectives, as an indicator of the importance of
275 using modeling practices throughout the course (*e.g.*, students will analyze and interpret diverse
276 models used in science; students will construct models to represent biological systems; or,
277 students will test predictions using mathematical models).

278 These suggestions do not require substantial alteration of the existing curriculum, just a small shift that
279 will draw attention to the use of models in biology. By changing how we think about presenting this
280 information as part of a lecture or activity, we can achieve the goal of raising student awareness and
281 understanding of models.

282 If we consider the population genetics model, Hardy-Weinberg Equilibrium (HWE), we can see
283 how it can be used to foreground the modeling process with students, developing their modeling skills,
284 while at the same time helping them learn important evolutionary concepts (Box 2). The utility of HWE
285 as a model is in providing a simple conceptual framework for inferring when evolutionary forces are
286 acting on a population, one that can be expanded upon to explore which forces may be at play (Table 1).
287 This type of theoretical exploration provided by the model is an opportunity for students both to engage in
288 quantitative interpretation of a mathematical model, and to work with the various models of the biological
289 concepts of genes and alleles, which can be elusive for students to grasp (Speth et al., 2014). First, be
290 explicit that HWE *is* a model (something potentially hidden by the distractor of “equilibrium” in the
291 name), and a mathematical model at that. Then be explicit with how the assumptions built into the HWE
292 model (one gene, two alleles, a large, randomly mating population with no overlapping generations, and
293 no evolutionary forces acting upon the population) both make it useful as a null model and also limit its
294 utility to situations unlikely to be found in real populations. Have the students describe the model (Box 2)
295 by identifying the variables in the model, their attributes (such as whether they are continuous or
296 discrete), and measures. Have students explain why these variables are included in the model, and how
297 the attributes of the variables lead to relationships that result in the model, *i.e.*, link the verbal description
298 of the assumptions of the model to the symbolic equation. Deliberately emphasizing these aspects of the

299 modeling process can help students move beyond focusing simply on the “plug-and-chug” nature of
300 inputting numbers into $p^2 + 2pq + q^2 = 1$ (what Stewart et al., 2010 called “model-less problem solving”)
301 and towards using model-based reasoning to see how the model fits into a larger explanatory framework
302 of the evolutionary forces at work (“model-using problem solving” in the language of Stewart et al.,
303 2010). This type of model description is a gateway to later having students develop their own models.

304 *Facilitate metacognition*

305 The previous sections described how model-based reasoning informs our approach to biological
306 problems and how we can introduce the practices of model use and modeling if we are more explicit in
307 the language we use in our teaching. Next, by structuring students’ opportunities to reflect about models
308 and modeling, we encourage them to make new connections between ideas and recognize generalizations
309 about their experiences. Of course, the goal of having students reflect about using models is to help them
310 develop an awareness and evaluation of their thinking (a.k.a., metacognition) about models when they
311 encounter new scientific problems. Some have defined this level of awareness about modeling as
312 “metamodeling”, which is the ability to be metacognitive about the process of modeling (Box 1, 2;
313 Schwarz and White, 2005; Papaevripidou et al., 2007). Metamodeling can improve students’
314 understanding of practices like predicting, observing, and explaining phenomena (Barab et al., 2000;
315 Schwarz and White 2005; Sins et al., 2005) and the ability to make mechanistic explanations (Fretz et al.,
316 2002; Louca and Zacharia, 2012). Importantly, metamodeling enhances students’ abilities to regulate their
317 own learning (Papaevripidou and Zacharia, 2015). As students gain awareness of where they are relative
318 to a learning progression of modeling (Schwarz et al., 2009), they can be more aware of how they are
319 using models to address biological problems. For example, a couple of the authors have had success with
320 journal assignments that ask students to reflect on what they have learned through the modeling activity.
321 Journal prompts can include questions like:

- 322 ● How did clarifying your assumptions help you develop a better model?
- 323 ● How did you determine if the results were biologically valid?

- 324 • What was most surprising about your findings?
325 • How has the modeling activity given you different insight into the biological problem?

326 *Use anchors*

327 A good pedagogical approach for engaging students more deeply with modeling is to provide an
328 “anchor” – a personally accessible puzzling event or observation, rooted in a complex phenomenon, that
329 acts as a concrete base for exploring scientific concepts (Schwarz et al., 2009). Anchoring provides an
330 opportunity for students to engage in active learning, and importantly, provides a larger, compelling
331 problem for students to solve by applying their knowledge. Introducing a relevant, biological problem and
332 providing the opportunity to explore the phenomenon through the modeling process sets students up to
333 learn both disciplinary content and modeling skills (Garfunkel and Montgomery, 2016). The relevance of
334 the problem provides students with a “need to know” that drives their interest in the problem (*e.g.*, Dohn
335 et al., 2009), motivating students as they struggle to learn new skills and new information (Hidi and
336 Harackiewicz, 2000).

337 In the case of the HWE model, the anchor could be a familiar case in which organismal
338 phenotypes change through time, such as artificial selection for agricultural purposes or experiments
339 using Wisconsin Fast Plants that they may have conducted in biology labs (Williamson, 2015). This
340 allows students to draw on what they already know. Another type of anchor is to have students conduct
341 their own research by collecting observations on the phenomenon (Box 2). There is a myriad of
342 simulations, both computer-based and physical, that demonstrate changes in allele frequency in a
343 population (Jungck et al., 2010; Brewer and Gardner, 2013; Williamson, 2015). Finally, students might
344 read the original paper in *Science* by the mathematician G. H. Hardy (Hardy, 1908). This paper was
345 motivated by providing an explanation for the anchoring phenomenon that dominant alleles causing
346 bradydactyly in humans do not increase in frequency in a population, a phenomenon still misunderstood
347 today.

348 *Encourage students to ask their own questions*

349 Anchoring introduces students to a relevant, real-world, and messy biological problem and
350 provides some connection to personal experience with the phenomena of evolutionary forces and
351 population genetics. Beyond simply providing an example for data collection, this is an opportunity for
352 students to engage in both the scientific process and the modeling process by asking questions about the
353 phenomenon (Figure 2, top, Box 2). Students rarely have experience in asking questions, let alone
354 refining questions to be “good” scientific questions (Jungck, 1985; Peterson and Jungck, 1988;
355 Windschitl et al., 2008). This fundamental process-of-science skill requires practice and is worth the time
356 to develop. Encourage students to not just observe *what* is happening, but also ask *why* it is happening.
357 Initial student questions are likely to need revision. Staging the process so that students have an
358 opportunity to brainstorm unrefined questions, followed by working as a group to hone questions to be
359 more relevant will help students develop this skill (Rothstein and Santana, 2011). As students settle on
360 questions they would like to pursue, have them sketch a visual model representing the phenomenon
361 (Dauer et al., 2013). As with their initial questions, this model is likely to also require refinement.
362 Engaging in the modeling process to develop a visual model helps students (and their instructors) identify
363 where they are missing information (Pearsall et al., 1997; Long et al., 2014; Speth et al., 2014). The
364 process of asking questions, evaluating and refining questions, and making a first pass at a model
365 representing the phenomenon are valuable learning activities, and provides instructors with insight into
366 how students are thinking.

367 In the case of the HWE model, ask students to come up with questions about the observed
368 anchoring phenomenon of change in a population, and draw a visual model. It is important for students to
369 have time to work together to clarify and focus their questions and their models. It is not important for the
370 questions to be good scientific questions, or for the model to be a reliable representation. The educational
371 value lies in the process, not the product (Garfunkel and Montgomery, 2016). Building in time for
372 students to ask and refine questions, and develop a conceptual model does require course time. Students

373 will need some support in the first iteration of the modeling process, and it is essential they have time to
374 struggle with the problem. After students have produced their first model, focus discussion on what
375 quantitative aspects they included in the model (Weisstein, 2011). If the initial models are only qualitative
376 and visual, then ask the students to brainstorm what quantitative aspects could be added.

377 *Move between multiple representations*

378 In the previous section, we suggested helping students move from a verbal model to a visual
379 model to a mathematical model representation by asking them what quantitative aspects could be added to
380 their model. In general, an important modeling skill that can be scaffolded on the way to mathematical
381 modeling is the ability to represent a model in multiple modalities (experiential, visual, verbal, numerical,
382 and symbolic, cf. Eaton et al. 2017). Students should practice moving between representations and be able
383 to explain how the representations are related. We encourage students to develop both qualitative and
384 quantitative models, moving back and forth between them as different forms of evidence that strengthen
385 understanding of the phenomena. Having students use multiple representations of a model can support
386 their learning (Ainsworth, 1999). Multiple representations of a model may complement each other, each
387 providing different information that allows a student to have a more comprehensive understanding of the
388 biological problem (Ainsworth, 1999). In addition to translation among multiple representations, it is vital
389 to stress meaningful qualitative and quantitative interpretation of these models when determining trends
390 and making predictions, making explicit the link between the models in the biological context (Mayes et
391 al., 2013).

392 Shifting between a qualitative verbal or visual model and a quantitative mathematical model
393 (*mathematization*, Figure 2, left track) can be particularly challenging for students. Scaffolding the
394 process by starting with small, accessible steps, may help build student confidence. The first steps in
395 mathematizing a problem involve identifying variables, a unit measure for each variable, and attributes of
396 each variable that help determine covariation between variables (Thompson, 2011). Students can use a
397 qualitative verbal or visual model to identify variables related to the phenomenon and to identify the

398 relationships between those variables. With an understanding of the variables and their relationships,
399 students will be better prepared to move forward with developing a mathematical model.

400 To derive the HWE mathematical model, students must identify allele frequency as a measure of
401 evolutionary change in the population. The ease with which we, as instructors, throw around terms like
402 gene, allele, p , and q , may reproduce textbook conflation of genes and alleles that generate ambiguity
403 and hide uncertainty on the part of students as to what these terms mean. Connect students to what they
404 know about the life cycle of an organism (College Board, 2012) and then have them work from their
405 questions and qualitative verbal or visual models of HWE to identify the variables (alleles) and their
406 metrics (frequency). Mathematizing the problem themselves gives students the important role of ‘owners’
407 of the modeling process because it makes them responsible for learning about phenomena they discovered
408 (Papaevripidou et al., 2015). In other words, they become self-regulated modelers.

409 Taking this further, moving back and forth between a symbolic mathematical model and a
410 simulation (an experiential model) may be optimal for demonstrating how each type of evolutionary force
411 results in changes in the genetic variation of a population and for preparing students to refine their initial
412 models (next section). PopGen (http://www.radford.edu/~rsheehy/Gen_flash/popgen/) or the Biological
413 ESTEEM Project modules Deme 2.0 (http://bioquest.org/esteem/esteem_details.php?product_id=193),
414 DeFinetti 1.0 (http://bioquest.org/esteem/esteem_details.php?product_id=204), or Evolution Through
415 Natural Selection (http://bioquest.org/esteem/esteem_details.php?product_id=7080) can be used by
416 students to manipulate the strength of evolutionary forces and observe changes in allele frequencies over
417 generations, generating a numerical model. Note that in this pedagogical strategy, we did not start by just
418 giving the students previously collected data. A data table already indicates the variables that are
419 important and leapfrogs the student to interpreting trends and even making predictions, both relevant and
420 irrelevant. In this more advanced example, students should practice constructing the HWE mathematical
421 model for themselves.

422 *Refine models*

423 Two frequently overlooked modeling activities that can be performed with students are the
424 validation and refinement of models (Figure 2). An important aspect of model-based reasoning is model
425 validation, that the model should be tested empirically against the observations of the phenomena
426 (Windschitl et al., 2008; Schwarz et al., 2009) by evaluating the data collected to determine if the model
427 fits the data. Student models should also be tested conceptually against other models, by comparing them
428 with alternate models from their peers and with established models of the phenomenon. This provides the
429 opportunity for students to communicate and collaborate to identify weaknesses in their models and sets
430 the stage for the need for model refinement.

431 In the case of the HWE model, students can validate the model by making predictions and
432 explaining outcomes by testing the model on data collected from existing populations. Starting with a
433 pool of F_0 genotypes that are in Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium, give students several possible F_1 pools and
434 ask if evolutionary forces impacted the allele frequencies observed in each pool. For example, a much
435 smaller number of **aa** genotypes and much larger number of **AA** genotypes is consistent with a population
436 in which the homozygous recessive individuals fail to survive to adulthood. For some courses it will be
437 appropriate to introduce students to the Chi-square test to quantify the probability that a given F_1
438 population is in HWE. In doing so, we are layering the Chi-square statistical model on top of the HWE
439 null mathematical model. In terms of model validation, it is important to note that when one compares the
440 observed F_1 genotypes to the expected HWE values, one is checking to see if the *experimental population*
441 is in HWE, but when one compares the expected HWE values to the observed population data, one is
442 validating the assumptions of the *mathematical model*.

443 In the example above, the recognition that the genotype frequencies in the F_1 generation do not fit
444 the HWE null model leads to the biological explanation that evolutionary forces may be at play. However,
445 it should also be recognized that this is an evaluation of the assumptions of the mathematical model and
446 that an appropriate revision of the model could improve its explanatory power. This calls for students to

447 cross the threshold into creating a new model through refinement of an existing model to meet new
448 criteria or to apply it to a new situation. With a better understanding of the mathematical modeling
449 process, students can thoughtfully explore the consequences of adding a third allele or a second locus, or
450 explore the outcomes of various adaptive landscapes. These consequences could be reasoned through and
451 tested with the PopGen simulator (http://www.radford.edu/~rsheehy/Gen_flash/popgen/) or the
452 aforementioned Biological ESTEEM Project modules. We recognize that this may be beyond the scope of
453 a typical introductory biology course, but include this example here to show where this learning trajectory
454 is leading. In total, the modeling activities described in this essay form a learning progression from model
455 description to model exploration to model development to model refinement (Box 2). In this process,
456 students shift from seeing mathematical models as a “black box” to a “glass box”, exploring the why and
457 how of the observed behaviors. Finally, by developing and refining their own mathematical models, they
458 are operating with “no box” (http://bioquest.org/esteem/Intro_to_ESTEEM.pdf), having learned skills that
459 can be transferred to new biological problems.

460 *Provide opportunities for repeated practice of modeling skills within courses and across*
461 *the biology curriculum*

462 While we have stayed with the HWE model throughout this essay to demonstrate how to
463 implement the pedagogical strategies we suggest, we do not wish to imply that these pedagogical
464 strategies only apply to this particular content domain. Instead, we suggest that instructors be explicit
465 about the language of models and modeling throughout an introductory biology course. For example,
466 have students consider the species concept as a collection of species models in different contexts. By
467 exploring the assumptions and limitations of a species model, students will certainly gain more content
468 knowledge about the biological relevance of the definition of species (What does “species” mean in the
469 bacterial domain or for extinct species?). Moreover, by making a small shift and using the language of
470 models and modeling in this different example, the activity reinforces what students learned about the

471 modeling process in other situations such as the HWE model and contributes to their ability to apply
472 modeling skills in another context.

473 It is important to provide students practice with modeling throughout their degree program, but it
474 is not necessary for students to engage in the full mathematical modeling process from conception to
475 dissemination (Figure 2) in every course. For example, it may not make sense to have students engage in
476 all of the mathematical modeling activities we described, such as deriving the Hardy-Weinberg
477 mathematical equation in introductory biology. In contrast, it may be an explicit goal of an upper division
478 genetics or evolution course to not only do so, but to revise the equation for absolute selection against a
479 homozygous recessive genotype or to move from a one locus-two allele model to more loci or alleles or
480 both. These goals can be supported by using non-mathematical modeling language in introductory
481 biology through discussions of how to measure evolution and emphasizing the assumptions of the HWE
482 model. In addition, students will benefit from repeated experiences with modeling in different contexts.

483 Another reason to engage students in mathematical modeling is that students come to biology
484 with quantitative knowledge and reasoning skills (AP Calculus or Statistics, college-level math courses;
485 see Jungck, 2011), but need practice retrieving and applying them properly in novel contexts (Hester et
486 al., 2014). Students have exhibited significant learning gains when applying their quantitative skills to
487 biological problems in mathematics courses designed for biology majors (Eaton and Highlander, 2017),
488 and we encourage biology faculty to provide opportunities for students to practice and apply these
489 important skills in biology courses as well. If foundational mathematics and modeling knowledge is not
490 practiced throughout the curriculum, proficiency in the skill will be lost.

491 **An invitation to modeling: building a community with shared explicit** 492 **practices**

493 We hope this essay has shifted your thinking to see that models are ubiquitous in biology and to
494 consider yourself a modeler. Our goal was to inspire you to incorporate model-based reasoning in your
495 biology courses, adopting some of our suggested pedagogical strategies, starting with being explicit in

496 your language. Finally, we believe that as you gain experience using models and the language of
497 modeling with your students, this will lay the foundation for incorporating more mathematical modeling
498 into your courses. In short, we hope that you have revised your model of teaching modeling, and we
499 invite you to join our community of modelers. There are many resources available to support your efforts
500 in this area, some of which we have compiled in the Accessing Materials section. For mathematical
501 modeling, we encourage you to read the GAIMME report (Garfunkel and Montgomery, 2016), explore
502 the resources provided by the Society of Industrial and Applied Mathematics (SIAM, 2012; SIAM, 2014;
503 <https://m3challenge.siam.org/resources>), and join the QUBES community (<https://qubeshub.org>; Donovan
504 et al., 2015), which provides resources, tools, and professional development opportunities around
505 quantitative biology, especially through the Modeling Hub (<https://mmhub.qubeshub.org>). While we have
506 not addressed the assessment of modeling skills in this essay, sample rubrics are available (Garfunkel and
507 Montgomery, 2016; Bryce et al., 2016). We extend to you an invitation to modeling; we hope you will
508 join us!

509 Accessing Materials

- 510 ● QUBES: <https://qubeshub.org>, Modeling Hub: <https://mmhub.qubeshub.org>
- 511 ● Math Modeling Resources at SIAM: <https://m3challenge.siam.org/resources>
- 512 ● PopGen: Population genetics simulation program
513 http://www.radford.edu/~rsheehy/Gen_flash/popgen/
- 514 ● Biological ESTEEM Project (<http://bioquest.org/esteem/index.php>)
 - 515 ○ Deme 2.0 (http://bioquest.org/esteem/esteem_details.php?product_id=193)
 - 516 ○ DeFinetti 1.0 (http://bioquest.org/esteem/esteem_details.php?product_id=204)
 - 517 ○ Evolution Through Natural Selection
518 (http://bioquest.org/esteem/esteem_details.php?product_id=7080)

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Figure 1

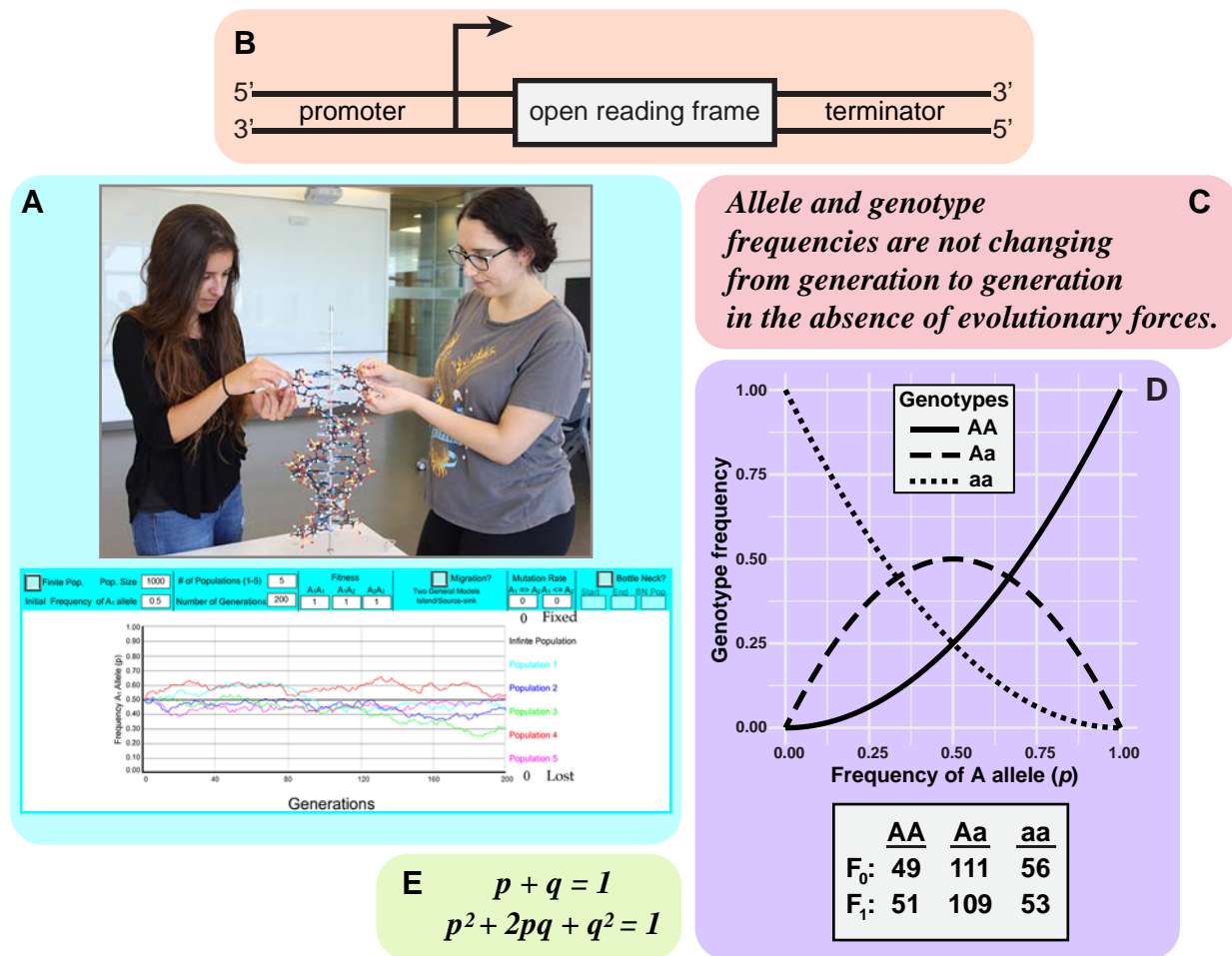
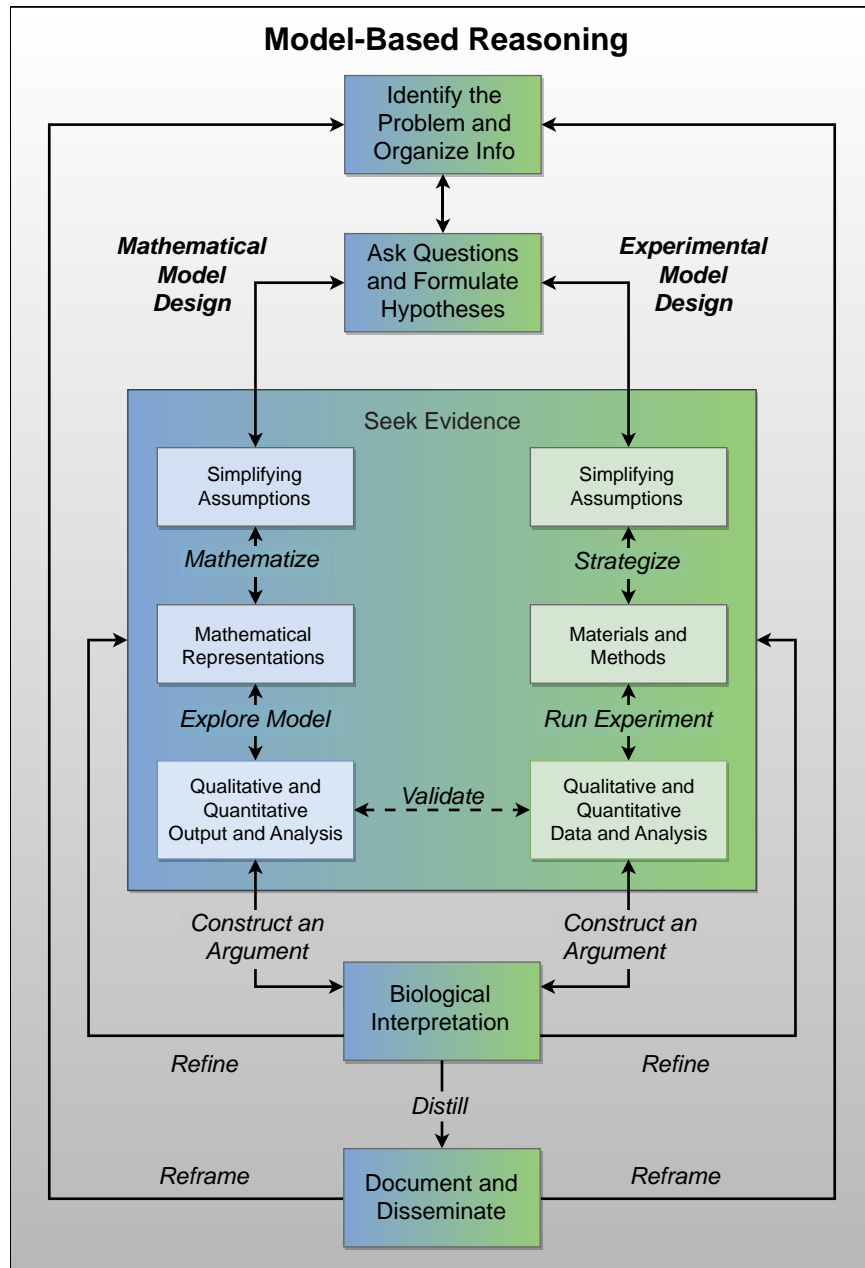


Photo credit: Tiffany Jonick

Figure 2



725 Figure Legends

726 **Figure 1.** Different model representations. (A) a physical DNA model put together by students (see also,
727 Cooper et al., 2017) and a screenshot of the PopGen simulator
728 (http://www.radford.edu/~rsheehy/Gen_flash/popgen/) are examples of experiential model
729 representations; (B) a schematic of a gene is an example of a visual model representation; (C) a statement
730 of the null hypothesis of the Hardy-Weinberg model is an example of a verbal model representation; (D) a
731 graph and data table of genotype frequencies are examples of numerical model representations; (E) the
732 Hardy-Weinberg equations are an example of a symbolic model representation. Photo credit: Tiffany
733 Jonick.

734 **Figure 2.** The parallel and iterative nature of the process of mathematical modeling and the process of
735 experimental science as instances of model-based reasoning. When approaching a new problem, one
736 begins by identifying the problem and organizing contextual information before proceeding to asking
737 questions and formulating hypotheses, which then inform the seeking of evidence. Evidence can be
738 obtained through either mathematical models or experiments (shown), or other avenues such as
739 observational field studies, evolutionary reconstruction approaches, or meta-analyses. In each track (left
740 and right), the steps of the mathematical and experimental model design have clear parallels. Validation
741 (dashed arrow) occurs when experimental data are compared to model output or vice versa. The analysis
742 of mathematical model and experimental model results are used to construct an argument for a particular
743 biological interpretation, which is documented (Grimm et al., 2014) and disseminated to other scientists.
744 This, in most cases, leads to even more questions. Each arrow is a modeling activity that can be
745 performed with students. While this diagram was drawn in a top-to-bottom, linear fashion to facilitate
746 easy viewing, we recognize that actual practice may be messier, requiring entering the diagram at
747 different points, traversing the steps in a different order, and repeating steps (Eaton et al., 2017;
748 Understanding Science)¹

748 **Footnote**

749 ¹ Interestingly, this figure, depicting the relationships and parallels between mathematical and
750 experimental approaches to modeling, is itself a model. It has served an important purpose in the
751 negotiation of our shared understanding of modeling over the course of collaboratively writing this paper.
752 We have actively used this model as a point of focus during our attempts to articulate our claims about the
753 modeling process. Questions like, “What exactly does this box represent?”, “Why is this word used
754 instead of another?”, and “Why are there unidirectional arrows here but bidirectional arrows in another
755 place?” have been asked by the biologists and mathematicians to each other when developing our ideas.
756 This figure has been refined many times.

Table 1: Five types of model utility as described by Odenbaugh (2005) with example models.

Model Utility	Example Model
Simple, unrealistic models for exploring complex systems	<ul style="list-style-type: none">● Using <i>Tetrahymena</i> is used as a model organism to study telomeres because it has tens of thousands of short linear chromosomes (Kain, 2009).● A model of an epidemic with different initial populations of susceptible, infected, and resistant individuals could be explored with different rules for transmission and recovery to provide insights into how different diseases spread through a population (Allen et al., 2008; Weisstein, 2011; Just et al., 2015).
Exploring unknown possibilities	<ul style="list-style-type: none">● Building 3D models based on predicted protein structures could be used to understand drug-target interactions.● Agent-based models could be used to identify simple interaction rules that can lead to different emergent population level behaviors like flocking (Macal and North, 2006; Railsback and Grimm, 2011).
Developing conceptual frameworks	<ul style="list-style-type: none">● A pathway diagram is a conceptual model summarizing experimental results (examples can be found at WikiPathways, http://wikipathways.org; Kutmon et al., 2016).● The Hardy-Weinberg null model can provide a starting point for explaining diverse evolutionary forces.
Making accurate predictions	<ul style="list-style-type: none">● Data-driven population models of fish stocks inform sustainable harvests.● An enzyme kinetic model of pyruvate carbon distribution in lactic acid bacteria accurately predicted which genes to manipulate to increase flavor compound production (Hoefnagel et al., 2002).
Generating causal explanations	<ul style="list-style-type: none">● A common garden experiment was used to determine whether differences in traits among populations of a plant species is due to genetic differences or phenotypic plasticity (Cordell et al., 1998).● The Hodgkin-Huxley symbolic model of ion flow across cell membranes helps to explain the all or none firing of action potentials.

Box 1: Definitions of Terms

Model: A simplified, abstract or concrete representation of relationships and/or processes in the real world, constructed for some purpose (Eaton et al., 2017).

Model utility: The purpose(s) for constructing and using the model, *e.g.* developing conceptual frameworks or making accurate predictions (see Table 1; Odenbaugh, 2005).

Modeling: An iterative process in which a model is proposed, explored, and refined (the arrows of Figure 2).

Model-based Reasoning: Forms of inquiry based on the process of modeling; using models to understand biological concepts.

Mathematization: The modeling process of going from a visual schematic or verbal description of the model and assumptions to a symbolic mathematical model representation.

Model refinement: Modifying aspects of the model, including changing the objects, processes and/or relationships.

Model exploration: Depending on the type of mathematical model, model exploration can consist of mathematical analyses or computer simulations to observe the behavior of the model as a function of its assumptions, inputs, and parameters.

Model validation: The process of assessing a model's output and assumptions with regard to its desired utility (is it addressing our goals?) and accuracy (is it consistent with other lines of evidence, *e.g.*, experimental data, observations and/or different models?).

Reframe: Incorporating the model and results into the broader set of scientific work, leading to new questions, hypotheses, or foci for scientific exploration.

Box 2: Examples of the range of ways that students can perform different modeling activities using the same HWE model.

Model description: Have the students discuss the utility of the null HWE model. Have students describe how the assumptions built into the HWE model limits the conditions under which it can usefully be applied. Have students identify the variables in the model, their attributes and measures. Link variables to assumptions by asking why these variables are included in the model. How do the attributes of the variables lead to relationships that result in the model?

Metamodeling: Have students keep a journal where they reflect upon the modeling process, answering questions such as: How did clarifying your assumptions help you develop a better model?, How did you determine if the results were biologically valid?, What was most surprising about your findings?, How has the modeling activity given you different insight into the biological problem?

Model use: Have students work with a small empirical dataset as an anchoring phenomenon that allows them to calculate both allele and genotype frequencies for a population and then test that data against the expectations generated by the HWE model.

Model exploration: Have students test the boundary conditions of the model or add alleles to the model to more deeply understand the quantitative relationships between allele frequencies and genotype frequencies under HWE model conditions.

Moving between multiple model representations: Have students ask their own questions about an anchoring phenomenon and then create a sketch or diagram (visual model). Have them then brainstorm what quantitative aspects could be added to the model.

Model development: Have students derive the HWE model after working with a physical “bean-bag” genetics simulation and collecting data on the relationships between allele and genotype frequency.

Model refinement: Have students write out (starting in English) changes to the physical bean-bag genetics simulation in order to account for one of the evolutionary forces that can influence allele frequencies. Then have them try to formalize it into the HWE model equation or have them build a spreadsheet simulation of the force acting on a population.