

# On the estimation errors of $K_M$ and $V$ from time-course experiments using the Michaelis–Menten equation

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## Abstract

The conditions under which the Michaelis–Menten equation accurately captures the steady-state kinetics of a simple enzyme-catalyzed reaction is contrasted with the conditions under which the same equation can be used to estimate parameters,  $K_M$  and  $V$ , from progress curve data. Validity of the underlying assumptions leading to the Michaelis–Menten equation are shown to be necessary, but not sufficient to guarantee accurate estimation of  $K_M$  and  $V$ . Detailed error analysis and numerical “experiments” show the required experimental conditions for the independent estimation of both  $K_M$  and  $V$  from progress curves. A timescale,  $t_Q$ , measuring the portion of the time course over which the progress curve exhibits substantial curvature provides a novel criterion for accurate estimation of  $K_M$  and  $V$  from a progress curve experiment. It is found that, if the initial substrate concentration is of the same order of magnitude as  $K_M$ , the estimated values of the  $K_M$  and  $V$  will correspond to their true values calculated from the microscopic rate constants of the corresponding mass-action system, only so long as the initial enzyme concentration is less than  $K_M$ .

**Keywords:** experimental design, parameter estimation, reproducibility, inverse problem.

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## 1. Introduction

The fundamental equation of enzyme kinetics is the Michaelis–Menten (MM) equation, which relates the rate of an enzyme-catalyzed reaction to the concentration of substrate [1, 2]. The MM equation is typically derived using the steady-state assumption as proposed by Briggs and Haldane [3]. It is characterized by two parameters: the Michaelis constant,  $K_M$ , which acts as an apparent dissociation constant under the assumption of steady-state, and the limiting rate,  $V$  (or the catalytic constant,  $k_{\text{cat}}$  if the enzyme concentration is known) [4]. These parameters are often viewed as thermodynamic properties of an enzyme–substrate pair, and hence depend on conditions such as pH and temperature, but not on time-dependent enzyme nor substrate concentrations [5]. As a result, measuring  $K_M$  and  $V$  are essential to characterizing enzymatic reactions [6]. However, the treatment of  $K_M$  and  $V$  as constants with respect to enzyme and substrate concentrations relies on simplifying assumptions relating to the quasi-steady-state of the intermediate complex formed by the enzyme and substrate [7]. If conditions for the reaction lie outside the range for which the simplifying assumptions are valid,  $K_M$  becomes dependent on the concentration of the substrate, and hence, on time. Experiments to estimate  $K_M$  must be conducted under conditions for which the MM equation is valid [7, 8]. This can be problematic since it is generally necessary to know  $K_M$  a priori in order to insure the experimental conditions meet the requirements for the using MM equation. Additionally, values of  $K_M$  and  $V$  measured under valid experimental conditions can only be transferred to cases that also meet the requirements. Since this is often not the case in vivo, using values of  $K_M$  and  $V$  measured in vitro to predict the activity of an enzyme in living organisms can often be seriously unreliable [9].

The range of substrate and enzyme concentrations over which the MM equation can be applied has long history of theoretical investigation [see 8, for a recent review], and requires two assumptions be valid. The first, called the steady-state assumption, implies that the timescale for the formation of the intermediate complex is much faster than that of the conversion of the substrate into product [10]. The second, called the reactant-stationary assumption, implies that the fast, transient period in which the steady-state population of intermediate complex first forms, depletes only a negligible

36 amount of substrate [11]. It has been shown that the reactant-stationary as-  
 37 sumption is more restrictive and, if valid, the reaction velocity (after the ini-  
 38 tial transient period) will follow the MM equation and be well-characterized  
 39 by the parameters  $K_M$  and  $V$  [10, 12, 8].

40 At first sight, it is tempting to assume that, when the MM equation is  
 41 valid, experimental data should also yield accurate estimates of  $K_M$  and  $V$   
 42 [13, 14]. However, the conditions for the validity of the steady-state and  
 43 reactant-stationary assumptions are based on a forward problem, i.e. one in  
 44 which the parameters are known. Estimating parameters from experimental  
 45 data, on the other hand, is an inverse problem [15]. Extracting true values of  
 46 parameters from data requires a stable and unique inverse mapping that is  
 47 not guaranteed by the existence of a solution to the forward problem [see 16,  
 48 for example]). Hence, even in cases where the assumptions underlying the  
 49 MM equation are valid, and the MM equation accurately fits an experimental  
 50 progress curve, the values of  $K_M$  and  $V$  estimated from the data may differ  
 51 significantly from their true values.

52 Understanding the conditions for which the inverse problem is well posed  
 53 is crucial for the effective and efficient design of experiments. When designing  
 54 enzyme progress-curve experiments, one typically must choose the initial con-  
 55 centrations of the substrate and enzyme (although the enzyme concentration  
 56 may not always be adjustable), as well as the time span and sampling fre-  
 57 quency for data collection [17]. Hence, useful experiments require conditions  
 58 that both satisfy the conditions for which MM kinetics are to be expected,  
 59 and lead to the most informative set of data for constraining parameter val-  
 60 ues. Early use of progress curves to determine kinetic parameters focused on  
 61 linearization of the rate equations or efficient integration and optimization  
 62 algorithms for fitting parameters [18, 19, 20, 21, 22]. As these algorithms  
 63 evolved, computational tools for analysis of progress curve data increased  
 64 the accessibility and popularity of progress curve experiments [23, 24, 25].  
 65 However, less attention has been paid to the design of progress curve ex-  
 66 periments. Initial research applied sensitivity analysis [26], and information-  
 67 theoretic approaches [27] to estimate optimal initial substrate concentrations  
 68 and the most sensitive portion of the progress curve, and hence, the most use-  
 69 ful portion for parameter estimation. Vandenberg et al. [26] found that the  
 70 largest feasible substrate concentration and the section of the progress curve  
 71 for which the substrate concentration is between 60-80% of the initial value  
 72 maximized the sensitivity of the fitted parameters. However, maximizing the  
 73 sensitivity of the data collection range does not necessarily guarantee min-

imization of the errors in the fitted parameters. To address this, Duggleby and Clarke [17] assessed the optimal initial substrate concentration and data spacing under the criterion of minimal standard error of  $K_M$ . The optimal design of Duggleby and Clarke differs from that of Vandenberg et al. in that an initial substrate concentration 2 to 3 times  $K_M$  is recommended. It was also found that data should be collected until the extent of the reaction is 90%. These recommendations have become the de facto “rule of thumb” for progress curve experimental design. In determining these recommendations, the authors evaluated their parameter estimates in comparison to parameter values obtained through initial rate experiments on the same enzymatic systems, and to simulated progress curves calculated by integrating the MM equation and adding random fluctuations. Hence, no connection was made to the underlying microscopic rate constants describing the mass-action kinetics of the systems, meaning the accuracy of the estimates could not be assessed relative to the “true” values of  $K_M$  and  $V$  as defined in terms of microscopic rate constants. A similar approach was later taken to evaluate the capacity of a closed-form solution to the MM equation to fit progress curves [28].

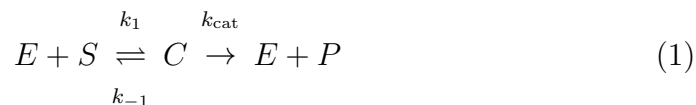
The work of Duggleby and colleagues provide guidance for when the parameters in the MM equation,  $K_M$  and  $V$ , are most robustly estimated from progress curve experiments, but do not assess whether the fitted parameters are the same as those defined in terms of microscopic rate constants. With improved fitting algorithms and greater computational power, interest has grown in the direct determination of microscopic rate constants through fitting of progress curves with numerically-integrated rate equations [29]. Although appealing, this approach can only provide accurate estimates for parameters that are sensitive to the given experimental conditions. Under experimental conditions for which the mass-action rate equations reduce to the MM equation, this procedure will necessarily lead to overfitting. Designing experiments from which  $K_M$  and  $V$  can be unambiguously determined requires assessing the experimental conditions in terms of the requirements for the validity and uniqueness of the MM equation. Moreover, given the massive amounts of data generated by the biomedical science community, scientists must be cognizant of the strengths and weakness of quantitative approaches in order to guarantee the reproducibility of published research data.

In this work, we seek to address the issue of estimating parameters from progress curves of single-substrate, single-enzyme-catalyzed reactions quantitatively. In Section 2, we review the validity of the steady-state and reactant-

stationary assumptions, and quantify errors incurred by making these assumptions. In Section 3, we discuss the inverse problem associated with estimating parameters based on the MM equation. In doing so, we derive a new condition based on time-scale separation of the linear and nonlinear portions of the progress curve that indicates when both  $K_M$  and  $V$  can be estimated from a single experiment. Numerical experiments are then conducted in Section 4 to verify and quantify the range of experimental conditions that allow for veracious estimations of  $K_M$  and  $V$ . We conclude with a discussion of the results in Section 5.

## 2. The forward problem: the Michaelis–Menten equation and the conditions for its validity

In the simplest, single-enzyme and single-substrate reaction, the enzyme  $E$  reacts with the substrate  $S$  to form an intermediate complex  $C$ , which then, under the action of the enzyme, forms a product  $P$  and releases the enzyme,



where  $k_1$  and  $k_{-1}$  are microscopic rate constants, and  $k_{\text{cat}}$  is the catalytic constant [4]. Applying the law of mass action to reaction mechanism (1) yields four rate equations

$$\dot{e} = -k_1 es + k_{-1}c + k_{\text{cat}}c \quad (2a)$$

$$\dot{s} = -k_1 es + k_{-1}c \quad (2b)$$

$$\dot{c} = k_1 es - k_{-1}c - k_{\text{cat}}c \quad (2c)$$

$$\dot{p} = k_{\text{cat}}c, \quad (2d)$$

where lowercase letters represent concentrations of the corresponding uppercase species. Typically, in test tube enzyme binding assays the initial conditions are taken to be

$$(e, s, c, p) |_{t=0} = (e_0, s_0, 0, 0). \quad (3)$$

Additionally, the system obeys two conservation laws, the enzyme and substrate conservation laws,

$$e(t) + c(t) = e_0 \quad (4a)$$

$$s(t) + c(t) + p(t) = s_0. \quad (4b)$$

Using (4a) to decouple the enzyme concentrations, the redundancies in the system (2) are eliminated to yield

$$\dot{s} = -k_1 (e_0 - c) s + k_{-1} c \quad (5a)$$

$$\dot{c} = k_1 (e_0 - c) s - (k_{-1} + k_{\text{cat}}) c \quad (5b)$$

where  $e(t)$  and  $p(t)$  are readily calculated once  $s(t)$  and  $c(t)$  are known. If, after an initial, rapid buildup of  $c$ , the rate of depletion of  $c$  approximately equals its rate of formation,  $c$  is assumed to be in a quasi-steady state [3], i.e.

$$\dot{c} \approx 0 \quad \text{for } t > t_c, \quad (6)$$

where  $t_c$  is the timescale associated with the initial transient buildup of  $c$  [10]. The steady-state assumption (6), in combination with (5), leads to

$$c = \frac{e_0 s}{K_M + s} \quad (7a)$$

$$\dot{s} = -\frac{V s}{K_M + s}, \quad (7b)$$

where  $V = k_{\text{cat}} e_0$  and  $K_M = (k_{-1} + k_{\text{cat}}) / k_1$ . Hence, the system (2) is reduced to an algebraic-differential equation systems with one single differential equation for  $s$ . However, since (7) is only valid after the initial transient time period,  $t_c$ , a boundary condition for  $s$  at  $t = t_c$  must be supplied. To do this, it is assumed that very little substrate is consumed during the initial transient period (the reactant-stationary assumption) such that

$$s(t < t_c) \approx s_0, \quad (8)$$

which provides an initial condition for (5a) under the variable transformation  $t \rightarrow t - t_c$ . Substituting (7a) into (2d), one obtains, the rate of the reaction (1)

$$\dot{p} = v = \frac{V s}{K_M + s}, \quad (9)$$

relating the rate of product formation to the substrate concentration. Equation (9) is the MM equation, and the system of equations (7a), (7b), and (9) govern the dynamics the complex, substrate, and product, respectively, under the steady-state assumption.

142 The conditions under which the steady-state assumption (6) and reactant-  
143 stationary assumption (8) are valid have been extensively studied. Segel [10]  
144 showed that the steady-state assumption is valid so long as

$$\frac{e_0}{K_M + s_0} \ll \left(1 + \frac{K_S}{K}\right) \left(1 + \frac{s_0}{K_M}\right), \quad (10)$$

145 where  $K_S = k_{-1}/k_1$ , and  $K = k_{\text{cat}}/k_1$ . For the reactant-stationary assump-  
146 tion to be valid, they derived the condition

$$\frac{e_0}{K_M} \ll \left(1 + \frac{s_0}{K_M}\right), \quad (11)$$

147 which is more stringent than condition (10), and hence dictates the condi-  
148 tions under which the MM equation can be applied. Interestingly, it has  
149 been shown that condition (11) is independent from (10) for several enzyme  
150 catalyzed reactions [11].

## 151 2.1. Quantitative analysis of the errors induced by the steady-state and reactant- 152 stationary assumptions

153 To gain a quantitative understanding of the inequalities expressed in (10)  
154 and (11), an accurate assessment of the difference between the solution to  
155 system (5) and the reduced equations (7) is required. For our analysis, we  
156 compare progress curves of the substrate calculated with numerical solutions  
157 to the exact law of mass action system (5a) and the reduced equation (7b)  
158 under the steady-state assumption. Note that the reduced rate equation (7b)  
159 is effectively the MM equation for the substrate depletion. The *concentration*  
160 *error* as a function of time is calculated as

$$\text{error}(t) = \left| \frac{s(t) - s_{MM}(t)}{s_0} \right|, \quad (12)$$

161 where  $s_{MM}$  is the substrate concentration calculated using the reduced equa-  
162 tion (7b) and  $|\cdot|$  denotes the absolute value. To form a scalar measure of  
163 the error, we use the maximal value of the concentration error over the time  
164 course of the reaction. Contours of the maximum concentration error in the  
165 plane of initial enzyme and substrate concentrations (normalized by  $K_M$ ) are  
166 shown in **Fig. 1**. Additionally, conditions (10) and (11) are plotted for the  
167 cases when the right-hand sides are ten times the left-hand sides to represent  
168 the much less condition numerically. For all values of  $\kappa = k_{-1}/k_{\text{cat}} = K_S/K$ ,

condition (11) is sufficient to guarantee small errors when using the MM equation. However, **Fig. 1A** shows that when  $\kappa$  is small – implying the reverse step in reaction (1) is negligible – small values of  $s_0/K_M$  yield small errors, regardless of the initial enzyme concentration.

The observed errors can be understood by considering the influence of small  $\kappa$  and  $s_0/K_M$  on the system (5). When  $\kappa \ll 1$ , reaction (1) strongly favors the production for  $P$  from  $C$  as opposed to the disassociation of  $C$  back to  $E$  and  $S$ . This reduces the reaction mechanism (1) to the van Slyke–Cullen mechanism [30] as  $K_M \approx K$ . The requirement  $s_0/K_M \gg 1$  implies that the formation of  $C$  is slow compared to the formation  $P$  and the disassociation of  $C$ . Taken together, these two requirements provide an ordering of timescales such that the formation of  $C$  is slow compared to the action of the enzyme to form  $P$ , but fast compared to the disassociation of the intermediate complex, effectively reducing the rate equation for the substrate depletion (5a) to  $\dot{s} \approx -k_1 e_0 s$ . Similarly, under the same condition, the MM equation for substrate (7b) reduces to the same expression. Hence, under these conditions, the MM equation accurately represent the system dynamics, even though condition (11) is violated.

The condition for the validity of the reactant-stationary assumption (11) is a sufficient condition for the MM equation to be valid. In essence, this says that for a known set of parameter values, if the reactant-stationary assumption is valid, the dynamics of the reduced system (7) will closely approximate the dynamics of the full system (5). However, the MM equation is often used to estimate  $K_M$  and  $V$  from experimental data, which requires solving an inverse problem. Solutions to the forward problem do not guarantee the existence or uniqueness of the inverse problem, hence it is not clear that the conditions for the validity of the reduced forward problem correspond to the conditions required to accurately estimate rate constants. This issue is investigated in the following section.

### 3. The inverse problem: Estimation of $K_M$ and $V$

The experimental estimation of the parameters  $K_M$  and  $V$  is used to characterize enzyme-catalyzed reactions. In general,  $K_M$  and  $V$  can be estimated through either initial rate experiments [see 31, for a recent review] or direct analysis of time course data [28]. In initial rate experiments, a series of enzyme assays with differing substrate concentrations are performed and initial reaction rates are calculated from the linear portion of the progress



curve (after the initial fast transient,  $t_c$ , and before substrate depletion becomes influential). The MM equation for either substrate or product is then fit to the initial rates as a function of initial substrate concentration, yielding  $K_M$  and  $V$ . When time course data is used, the integrated implicit [32] or closed-form [33] of the MM equations are fit directly to time series through nonlinear regression, providing estimates for  $K_M$  and  $V$ . Although initial rate experiments are more commonly used, they require numerous assays with different substrate concentrations to determine  $K_M$  and  $V$ . Alternatively, time course analyses have the advantage that  $K_M$  and  $V$  can be estimated from a single experiment, making them potentially much cheaper when expensive reactants are required, and less time consuming [34, 35, 36, 7]. Hence, in this work, we consider the problem of parameter estimation directly from progress curves, specifically, those for the concentration of substrate.

Inverse problems are typically formulated in terms of an operator,  $F$ , mapping the space of parameters,  $Q$ , to the space of observations,  $Y$ , i.e.

$$F(q) = y, \quad (13)$$

where  $q \in Q$  is a vector of parameters, and  $y \in Y$  is a vector of observed quantities. In general,  $F = G \circ H$  is a composite of the solution operator  $S$ , which maps a parameter vector  $q$  to a solution vector  $\bar{y}$  of the underlying ordinary differential equation for the rate equations, and the observation operator  $R$ , which takes  $\bar{y}$  to the observable  $y$  [37]. For example, if fluorescent markers are used to tag substrate molecules, and fluorescent intensity is measured at times  $t_i$ ,  $G$  is then the mapping between the fluorescent intensity at times  $t_i$  and substrate concentration, and  $H$  is the solution to the rate equations (7).  $G$  effectively samples the solution to the rate equation model at the observation times and converts those concentrations to the experimental observables.

For the present study, we assume the concentrations are observed directly, hence  $G$  is simply a sampling of the integrated rate equations (5). Specifically, we consider the case in which the concentration of the substrate is measured at discrete times  $t_i$  and  $H$  is the solution to (7). The inverse problem consists of finding a parameter vector  $q$  solving (13). However, (13) is generally ill-posed due to experimental noise. Even in the absence of experimental error, the inverse problem will be ill-posed, because the MM equation only approximates the mass action rate equations (5), even when the steady-state and reactant-stationary assumptions are valid. The exact inverse problem must

then be reformulated as a least-squares optimization problem to minimize the function

$$\|y - F(q)\|_Y^2, \quad (14)$$

where  $\|\cdot\|_Y$  is the  $L_2$  norm on  $Y$ . The sensitivity of (14) to changes in parameter values is measured by the local condition number for the first order optimality condition. The condition number is given by the ratio of the maximum and minimum eigenvalues of the matrix

$$J^*(q_*) J(q_*). \quad (15)$$

In the above expression,  $J$  is the Jacobian of the mapping  $F$ ,  $q_*$  is the “true” parameter vector and  $J^*$  denotes the conjugate transpose of  $J$ . Ill-conditioning implies small errors in the data (or model) can result in large errors in the estimated parameters. Although many features of a problem can affect the conditioning (such as proper choice of units) [38], of particular importance when fitting the MM equation is the correlation of the parameters. When the parameters are highly correlated the model is incapable of uniquely determining the parameters because, as the correlation coefficient tends toward 1, the parameters become linearly dependent. In this case, at least one column of  $J$  will be approximately a linear combination of the others, and hence not invertible.

Effectively, this dictates when the mass action model (5), which depends on three parameters  $(k_1, k_{-1}, k_{\text{cat}})$ , reduces to the MM model (7) with parameters  $(K_M, V)$ . Under experimental conditions for which the reactant stationary assumption is valid, it is not possible to estimate all three rate constants from the mass action model using time course data. Similarly, within the region of validity for the reactant stationary assumption, there are sub-regions in which columns of  $J$  become nearly linearly dependent, and hence prohibit estimation of both  $K_M$  and  $V$  from time course data. To see where this rank deficiency occurs we consider two regions in the  $s_0/K_M - e_0/K_M$  plane. In both, the conditions for the validity of the reactant stationary assumption are met. Additionally, in the first case  $s_0 \ll K_M$ . Since  $s < s_0$  for all  $t$ , we can expand (5a) in powers of  $s/K_M$ . Truncating this expansion at order two leads to

$$\dot{s} = -\frac{Vs}{K_M} \left(1 - \frac{s}{K_M}\right). \quad (16)$$

To lowest order,  $\dot{s}$  depends only on the ratio of  $V$  to  $K_M$ , and hence the inverse problem of finding both parameters from time course data will become extremely ill-conditioned at small substrate concentrations (see, **Fig. 2A**).

273 Next, consider the case in which the substrate is in great excess, i.e.  
 274  $s_0 \gg K_M$ . Initially,  $s \approx s_0$ , allowing for an expansion of  $\dot{s}$  in powers of  
 275  $K_M/s_0$ , which, to second order, gives

$$\dot{s} \approx -V \left( 1 - \frac{K_M}{s} \right). \quad (17)$$

276 Hence, so long as  $s \gg K_M$ , the substrate concentration will decrease linearly  
 277 with rate  $-V$ . Eventually, the progress curve must deviate from the initial  
 278 linearity, and presumably, this curvature should contain information about  
 279  $K_M$ , allowing for both parameters to be estimated. However, if the time over  
 280 which the progress curve is nonlinear is small, or equivalently, the initial linear  
 281 regime very nearly approaches substrate depletion, parameter estimation will  
 282 fail. Large  $s_0/K_M$  can be shown to imply this by comparing the timescale  
 283 for significant substrate depletion,  $t_S$ , with the timescale of high curvature,  
 284  $t_Q$ . The substrate depletion timescale is given by [10]

$$t_S = \frac{\Delta s}{|\dot{s}_{\max}|} = \frac{K_M + s_0}{V}. \quad (18)$$

285 The high-curvature timescale can be estimated with the aid of the second  
 286 derivative of the substrate concentration,

$$\ddot{s} = \frac{V^2 K_M s}{(K_M + s)^3}. \quad (19)$$

287  $t_Q$  is defined as the ratio of the total change in velocity of the reaction to the  
 288 maximum acceleration. The maximum acceleration, found by equating (19)  
 289 with zero, occurs when  $s = K_M/2$  for  $s_0 \geq K_M/2$ , and  $s_0$  otherwise. Since  
 290 the present analysis concerns high  $s_0/K_M$ , the high-curvature timescale is  
 291 given by

$$t_Q = \frac{\Delta V}{\ddot{s}|_{s=K_M/2}} = \frac{27K_M s_0}{4V(K_M + s_0)}, \quad (20)$$

292 where  $\Delta V$  is the change in reaction velocity through the region of curvature  
 293 and is equal to  $V$ . As shown in **Fig. 2A**,  $t_Q$  measures the time over which  
 294 the progress curve has significant curvature. Estimation of parameters from  
 295 time course data will not be possible when  $t_Q \ll t_S$ , or, upon substitution of

296 (18) and (20), when

$$\frac{27 \frac{s_0}{K_M}}{4 \left(1 + \frac{s_0}{K_M}\right)^2} \ll 1. \quad (21)$$

297 Therefore, as the initial substrate concentration is increased, the proportion  
 298 of the time course that can yield information about  $K_M$  decreases, and mea-  
 299 surements will require greater resolution in both time and concentration.  
 300 **Fig. 2B** shows the condition number and the ratio of the substrate deple-  
 301 tion timescale to the high-curvature timescale for a large range of  $s_0/K_M$ .  
 302 At small values of  $s_0/K_M$ , ill-conditioning makes parameter extraction in-  
 303 tractable, while at large  $s_0/K_M$ , measurements must be increasingly precise.  
 304 Thus, substrate concentrations close to  $K_M$  are desirable when determining  
 305 parameters.

## 306 4. Numerical experiments

307 To demonstrate and quantify the regions in which the conditioning of the  
 308 inverse problem is poor, and the necessary measurements become intractable,  
 309 we present a systematic numerical analysis of progress curve experiments in  
 310 this section.

### 311 4.1. Methodology for numerical progress curve experiments

312 Numerical experiments consist of first generating progress curve data from  
 313 the mass action rate equations with a known set of rate constants. Then, the  
 314 values of  $K_M$  and  $V$  corresponding to those rate constants are estimated by  
 315 fitting the MM equations to the progress curve. To generate experimental  
 316 progress curves it is necessary to choose a set of rate constants ( $k_1, k_{-1}, k_{\text{cat}}$ ),  
 317 and experimental protocol. The experimental protocol consists of defining  
 318 initial conditions,  $(s_0, e_0, c_0, p_0)$ , a time span for the experimental observation,  
 319  $t_{\text{obs}}$ , and a sampling frequency  $\omega$ . The system of equations (5) are integrated  
 320 numerically from  $t \in [0, t_{\text{obs}}]$  and substrate concentrations are recorded every  
 321  $\omega^{-1}$  time units, leading to  $t_{\text{obs}} \omega$  data points  $\{s_i(t_i)\}$ .

The data is then fitted using the numerically integrated form of (5a). The nonlinear regression used to calculate the parameters  $(K_M, V)$  is performed using the Levenberg–Marquardt algorithm as implemented in SciPy (version

0.17.1, <http://www.scipy.org>). In many cases, supplying good initial conditions for the optimizer used for the regression is crucial to finding accurate parameter estimates. Since, in actual experiments the values of  $K_M$  and  $V$  are not known a priori, we attempt to roughly estimate their values from the time course data to provide initial conditions for the optimization. To do this,  $\{s_i(t_i)\}$  is differentiated numerically by central differences to give approximate rates  $\{\dot{s}_i(t_i)\}$ . Then, using (5a), data at any two time points,  $t_i$  and  $t_j$  can be used to estimate the parameters through

$$K_M = \frac{(\dot{s}_j - \dot{s}_i) s_i s_j}{\dot{s}_i s_j - \dot{s}_j s_i} \quad (22)$$

$$V = \dot{s}_i \left( \frac{K_M}{s_i} + 1 \right). \quad (23)$$

In theory, any two points can be used to estimate  $K_M$  and  $V$ , however, it is best to use data for which the velocity is changing at that greatest rate. Hence, we additionally numerically calculate  $\{\ddot{s}_i(t_i)\}$  and choose the times directly on either side of the maximum to substitute into (22) and (23). To avoid using data points in the transient regime before the system reaches a quasi-steady state, we consider only the regime for which  $s(t_i) < s_0/2$ . For actual experiments, noise can make calculations of derivatives subject to large errors, hence smoothing techniques must be used. Additionally, numerous pairs of data points can be used to generate a distribution of estimates, which can then be averaged to give initial conditions for the optimization, similar to [39]. Once the initial conditions for the optimization routine are established, the best-fit values of  $K_M$  and  $V$  can be systematically estimated.

We note that when experimental conditions do not lie in a region for which the reactant stationary assumption is valid, the above technique will naturally provide poor estimates for  $K_M$  and  $V$ . In these regions, we have also used the true values  $K_M$  and  $V$ , calculated from the known rate constants, as initial conditions. Both methods provide qualitatively similar results throughout the regions of parameter space investigated here, and quantitatively agree in the region for which the reactant stationary assumption is valid.

#### 4.2. Errors in parameter estimates can be large even when the reactant stationary assumption is valid

Despite the validity of the reactant stationary assumption being sufficient for the MM equation to closely align with the solution to the mass action

governing equations, the inverse problem does not provide accurate estimates for parameters within the same range. **Fig. 3** shows errors in estimates of  $K_M$  and  $V$  for a wide range of  $e_0/K_M$  and  $s_0/K_M$ . Below and above the range plotted for  $s_0/K_M$ , the solutions become numerically unstable due to the conditioning problems discussed in Section 3. It is clear however, that even within the range defined by large and small values of  $s_0/K_M$ , significant errors are present. At high  $s_0/K_M$  and  $e_0/K_M$ ,  $V$  can be accurately determined, but  $K_M$  begins to show significant deviation. This is anticipated from the high- $s_0/K_M$  approximation of the substrate rate equation, which depends only on  $V$ . Additionally, when  $s_0/K_M < 1$ , the error contours follow a line for which  $e_0 \approx s_0$ . The condition that enzyme concentration is small relative to that of the substrate was one of the earliest conditions for the validity of the MM equations derived from singular perturbation theory [40]. For the forward problem, Segel [10] showed this condition to be overly restrictive, yet it appears to be appropriate for the inverse problem.

An explanation for the condition  $e_0 \ll s_0$  can be found by comparing the integrated form of the MM substrate equation with an exponential progress curve that is the limiting solution to the MM equations as  $s_0/K_M$  approaches zero. The integrated closed-form of (7b), known as the Schnell–Mendoza equation [33], can be written explicitly in terms of the Lambert-W function [41]

$$\frac{s(t)}{s_0} = \left( \frac{s_0}{K_M} \right)^{-1} W \left[ \frac{s_0}{K_M} e^{\left( \frac{s_0}{K_M} - \frac{V}{K_M} t \right)} \right]. \quad (24)$$

Expanding the above expression about zero and truncating at first order leads to

$$\frac{s(t)}{s_0} \approx e^{-\frac{k_{\text{cat}} e_0 t}{K_M} \left( 1 - \frac{s_0}{k_{\text{cat}} e_0 t} \right)}, \quad (25)$$

where we have used the definition of  $V$  to explicitly show the dependence on  $e_0$ . The exponential solution takes the form

$$\frac{s_{\text{exp}}(t)}{s_0} = e^{-\frac{k_{\text{cat}} e_0 t}{K_M}}. \quad (26)$$

371 Comparing (25) and (26) shows that the correction provided by the MM so-  
 372 lution over the exponential progress curve becomes decreasingly significant  
 373 as  $e_0/s_0$  becomes large. **Fig 4A** compares the mean concentration errors  
 374 between the best-fit solutions and the “true” solutions for both the MM  
 375 equation and an exponential fit. At small values of  $e_0/s_0$ , the MM equation  
 376 provides a distinctly better fit than the exponential solution, allowing both  
 377  $K_M$  and  $V$  to be estimated from a single progress curve. As  $e_0/s_0$  increases,  
 378 the two fitting functions eventually provide the identical fits. This corre-  
 379 sponds to an exponential increase in the variance of the estimated parame-  
 380 ters (**Fig. 4B**), and indicates that only the ratio  $V/K_M$  can be determined  
 381 in this range.

#### 382 4.3. *Fitting the initial substrate concentration does not significantly alter es-* 383 *timates of $K_M$ and $V$*

384 Even when the reactant stationary assumption is valid, a small amount  
 385 of substrate will be consumed in the initial transient period. Hence, the sub-  
 386 strate concentration at the start of the reaction may not exactly correspond  
 387 to that at the start of the quasi-stead-state phase. Although this difference  
 388 is small, it is not clear whether this can noticeably alter the estimation of  
 389  $K_M$  and  $V$ . Additionally, time course measurements often employ optical  
 390 techniques to collect concentration data. Without time consuming calibra-  
 391 tion curve experiments to relate the fluorescent intensity to concentration  
 392 directly, only relative concentrations are known. For these reasons,  $s_0$  can be  
 393 treated as an additional unknown parameter for the regression analysis [42].

394 **Fig. 5** shows error contours for estimates of  $K_M$ ,  $V$  and  $s_0$  for different  
 395 experimental conditions. Similar to when  $s_0$  is assumed known, the errors  
 396 in  $K_M$  and  $V$  follow lines of constant  $e_0/s_0$  at low substrate concentration.  
 397 Additionally, **Fig. 5C** shows that the best-fit value of  $s_0$  corresponds to  
 398 the true value of the initial substrate concentration for conditions where the  
 399 reactant stationary assumption is valid. These results indicate that including  
 400  $s_0$  as a free parameter can yield similar information about the constants  $K_M$   
 401 and  $V$ , even in those cases when no definite concentrations are known.

#### 402 4.4. *Data noise further reduces the range of conditions providing accurate* 403 *estimates of $K_M$ and $V$*

404 In any physical experiment, some finite amount of measurement error will  
 405 be present. To understand how signal noise affects the estimation of  $K_M$  and



406  $V$ , we add noise to the numerically-calculated solution of (5a) such that the  
407 data becomes

$$\{s_i(t_i)\}_\delta = \{s_i(t_i)\} + \eta(\delta), \quad (27)$$

408 where  $\eta$  is a pseudo-random number drawn from a Gaussian distribution of  
409 mean zero and standard deviation  $\delta$ . The data is then fitted as described in  
410 Section 4.1. However, the noise in the data precludes the use of the method  
411 described for estimating good initial conditions for the solver. Without a  
412 smoothing procedure, the difference formulas (22) and (23) can lead to large  
413 errors. In order to eliminate possible uncertainty arising from the determi-  
414 nation of good initial guesses from experimental data, we chose the “true”  
415 values of  $K_M$  and  $V$  as the starting point for the optimization algorithm.

416 Contour plots of the errors in the estimated values of  $K_M$  and  $V$  for the  
417 case of  $\delta = 0.01$  are shown in **Fig. 6**. Qualitatively, they exhibit the same  
418 behavior as the noise-free error contours (**Fig. 3**), and display a negligible in-  
419 crease in the magnitude of the error. However, a meaningful characterization  
420 of the quality of a fit is the variance in the estimated model parameters. To  
421 calculate the variance of  $K_M$  and  $V$ , the covariance matrix is first calculated  
422 as

$$\text{Cov} = (\bar{J}^T \bar{J})^{-1}, \quad (28)$$

423 where  $\bar{J}$  is the Jacobian evaluated numerically at the terminal point of the  
424 optimization. The variance for  $K_M$  and  $V$  are then the diagonal elements  
425 of Cov. As shown in **Fig. 7**, the range of experimental conditions leading  
426 to precise estimates of  $K_M$  becomes significantly constrained when even a  
427 small amount of measurement error is present. Only in the region where  
428  $s_0/K_M \approx 1$  and  $e_0/K_M \ll 1$  are the estimated  $K_M$  values robust. At larger  
429 initial substrate concentrations, the noise in the data sufficiently smears the  
430 sharply curved region of the substrate progress curve, making extraction  
431 of  $K_M$  prone to uncertainty. At small initial substrate concentrations, the  
432 added noise reduces the distinction between the exponential and MM solution  
433 branches shown in **Fig. 4A**, making independent determination of  $K_M$  and  $V$   
434 more difficult. Hence, even with only slight measurement error the reliability  
435 of estimated parameters falls significantly as the ratio  $s_0/K_M$  departs from  
436 unity.

## 437 5. Discussion

438 In this work, we have carried out a systematic analysis of the forward and  
439 inverse problems of the MM equation for the single substrate, single enzyme



440 catalyzed reaction. For the forward problem, it is widely believe that the  
 441 MM equation accurately captures the kinetics of simple enzyme-catalyzed  
 442 reactions when the reactant-stationary assumption holds true. Through a  
 443 concentration error analysis, we find that satisfying the reactant-stationary  
 444 assumption is a sufficient condition for the validity of the MM equation to  
 445 describe the time course of the enzyme catalyzed reaction. However, the  
 446 MM equation can accurately describe the reaction dynamics, even when the  
 447 reactant-stationary assumption is invalid when  $K_S/K \ll 1$  and  $s_0/K_M \gg 1$   
 448 (see, **Fig. 1A**).

449 As we have shown in this paper, the validity of the MM equation to de-  
 450 scribe the dynamics of the enzyme catalyzed reaction does not imply that  $K_M$   
 451 and  $V$  can be obtained from experimental progress curves conducted within  
 452 the parameter constraints established by the reactant stationary assumption.  
 453 This highlights an important problem encountered in parameter estimation.  
 454 Even when the MM equation very accurately fits the experimental data, the  
 455 fitted parameters may not accurately represent their true values. Without  
 456 a thorough analysis of the inverse problem, it is not possible to distinguish  
 457 between good fits that provide poor parameter estimates, and good fits that  
 458 accurately estimate parameters.

459 Most of the research done on the analysis of enzyme progress curves has  
 460 focused on the nonlinear regression analysis and algorithms to fit progress  
 461 curve data [43, 35, 28, 44]. Additional research has investigated the design of  
 462 progress curve experiments from a computational and theoretical standpoint  
 463 [17]. In these works, either experimental data is collected, or artificial data is  
 464 generated by adding noise to numerical solutions the integrated MM equation  
 465 for prescribed values of  $K_M$  and  $V$ . Then, the artificial data is fitted in  
 466 order to estimate  $K_M$  and  $V$ . Although this procedure can identify values  
 467 of  $K_M$  and  $V$  for which progress curves can be well-fit by the integrated  
 468 MM equation, it makes no connection to the underlying microscopic rate  
 469 constants. Hence, these studies do not directly assess whether the predicted  
 470 values of  $K_M$  and  $V$  are connected to their microscopic definitions. In the  
 471 present study we have addressed this issue through two approaches. We  
 472 first considered the asymptotic behavior of the MM equation under distinct  
 473 experimental conditions (Section 3). Then, we extracted data from numerical  
 474 solutions to the underlying mass-action system for prescribed microscopic  
 475 rate constants, comparing the predicted values of  $K_M$  and  $V$  with those  
 476 derived from the prescribed values of  $k_1$ ,  $k_{-1}$ , and  $k_{cat}$ .

477 The detailed error analysis presented in Section 4 provides guidelines for

the ranges of experimental conditions allowing for true parameter estimation. Specifically, we see that, in order for both  $K_M$  and  $V$  to be derived from substrate progress curve measurements:

1. The initial substrate concentration must be within approximately an order of magnitude of the Michaelis constant, that is  $s_0 = O(K_M)$ , especially when significant noise is present in the data. When the initial substrate concentration is in great excess of the Michaelis constant, that is  $s_0 \gg K_M$ , a linear fit to the initial velocity will yield  $V$ , but provide no information about  $K_M$ . When the initial substrate concentration is small compared to the Michaelis constant, that is  $s_0 \ll K_M$ , an exponential fit to the progress curve will provide an estimate for the ratio of  $V$  to  $K_M$ , but neither parameter independently.
2. The initial enzyme concentration must be smaller than the Michaelis constant, that is  $e_0/K_M \ll 1$ , especially when significant noise is present in the data.
3. Data points should be collected around the time point where the time course curvature is at it highest. The length of the high-curvature region is quantified through the timescale  $t_Q = 27K_M s_0 / 4V(K_M + s_0)$ .  $t_Q$  must not be significantly smaller than  $t_S$  if both  $K_M$  and  $V$  are to be estimated from a single progress curve. Theoretically, any two points could be used to estimate  $K_M$  and  $V$ , but empirical statistical analysis carried out elsewhere [14] shows that a minimum of 12 points is ideal for nonlinear regression analysis. These points should sample the region around the point of maximum curvature defined by  $t_Q$  (see, **Fig. 2A**).

The above points address important questions necessary to design experiments: What initial substrate concentrations should be used? What initial enzyme concentration should be used? At what time point should data be collected? How many data points should be collected along the curve?

Interestingly, only the first recommendation coincides with previous analysis done by Duggleby and Clarke [17], who recommend an initial substrate concentration of approximately  $2.5K_M$ . However, we additionally provide error contours for parameters estimated from experiments conducted under conditions far from this optimal value. This analysis shows that reasonable estimates can be expected so long as the initial substrate concentration is within an order of magnitude of the optimal value, that is  $0.25\text{--}25 K_M$ . Furthermore, noise in the data restricts this range to be significantly smaller

than the theoretical range for the validity of the MM equation.

The current experimental practice for data collection is that measurements should be made until the extent of the reaction reaches 90%. Duggleby and Clarke [17] finds that there is no advantage of extending beyond this point. In our analysis, we discovered that errors in  $K_M$  and  $V$  are minimized when data is collected in the region around the point of maximum curvature defined by  $t_Q$  (see, Figure 2A).

In general, since these requirements listed above depend on  $K_M$ , they cannot be assessed before conducting an experiment. However, they do provide useful checks that can reduce the number of experiments required, especially when compared to parameter estimation based on initial rate experiments. If a progress curve for a given initial substrate concentration cannot be fitted by an exponential, and has a curvature that can be resolved, nonlinear regression of the progress curve will provide accurate estimates of both  $K_M$  and  $V$ . If, say, the progress curve can reasonably be fit by an exponential, a second experiment with substantially larger initial substrate concentration should be performed. Then, the second progress curve, so long as the increase in initial substrate concentration is great enough to surpass the substrate range for which the kinetics are exponential, should yield either a curve from which both parameters can be estimated, or a curve from which  $V$  can be estimated. Hence, the two experiments are sufficient to make preliminary estimates of both  $K_M$  and  $V$ . This is in contrast to initial rate experiments, which require a large number of experiments such that a curve of the initial reaction velocity as a function of  $s_0$  can be produced. For accurate measurement of  $K_M$  and  $V$  from initial rate experiments, both large and small values of the substrate (relative to  $K_M$ ) must be used [14, 31]. Hence, progress curve analysis will always require fewer experiments than initial rate experiments. Additionally, if initial rate experiments are used, progress curve analysis can be used as a check the accuracy of the estimates. Values of  $K_M$  and  $V$  obtained from fitting (5a) to the initial rate data should correspond to those values obtained from progress curve analysis of the experiments for which the initial rates are intermediate between 0 and  $V$ .

In conclusion, this work both advocates and cautions the use of progress curve analysis in modeling and determining kinetic parameters for enzymatic reactions. Progress curve assays can greatly reduce the number of experiments (and hence the cost and quantity of reagents) needed, while still providing accurate measurements. However, it is essential to not conflate an accurate fit with an accurate estimate of  $K_M$  and  $V$ . If this is kept in mind,

553 progress curve analysis has significant advantages over the use of initial rate  
554 experiments.

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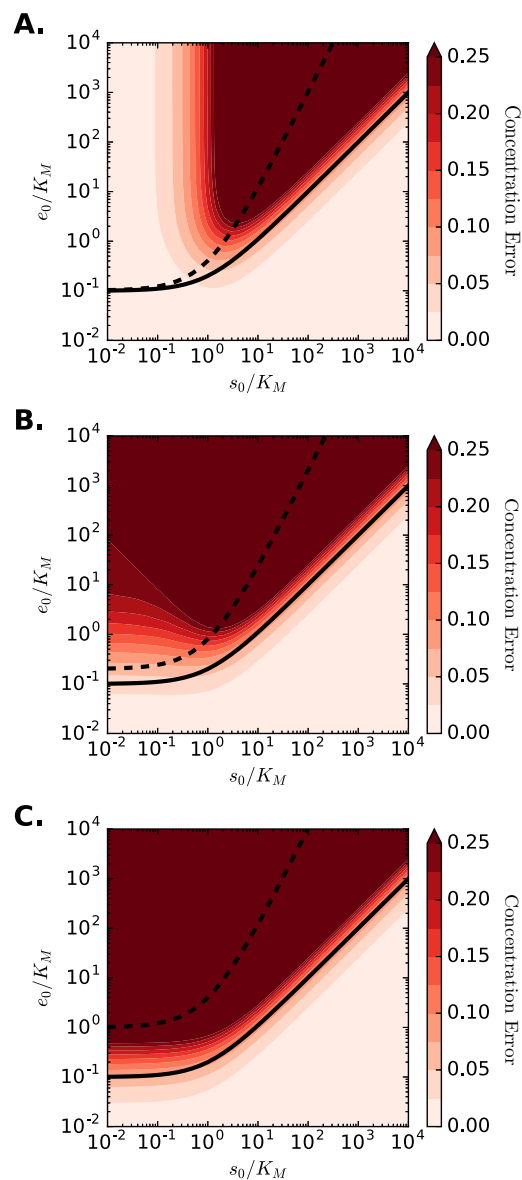


Figure 1: **Concentration error contours in the  $e_0/K_M$ - $s_0/K_M$  plane.** The maximal concentration errors are plotted in the plane of initial enzyme and substrate concentrations, normalized by  $K_M$ . The dashed black line corresponds to the condition for steady-state assumption (10), while the solid black line corresponds to the reactant stationary condition (11). Each panel shows different values of  $K_S$  and  $K$ , while  $K_M = 1$  for all cases. Panel **A**:  $K_S = 0.1$ ,  $K = 0.9$ ; Panel **B**:  $K_S = 0.5$ ,  $K = 0.5$ ; Panel **C**:  $K_S = 0.9$ ,  $K = 0.1$ .



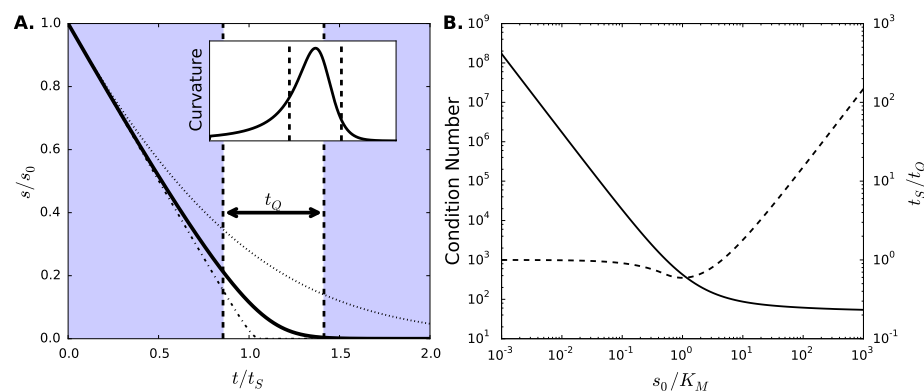


Figure 2: **(A) Substrate progress curves for high, intermediate and low initial substrate concentrations.** Substrate concentrations for differing values of  $s_0/K_M$  are plotted as a function of time. When the initial substrate concentration is large ( $s_0 = 100K_M$ , dot-dashed line) the substrate depletion is linear until nearly all substrate has been depleted. With low initial substrate concentration ( $s_0 = K_M$ , dotted line), the depletion follows a simple exponential. At intermediate values ( $s_0 = 10K_M$ , bold solid line), the concentration follows the full hyperbolic rate law and both  $K_M$  and  $V$  can be uniquely identified through regression. The non-shaded region marks the timescale  $t_Q$  for the bold curve, centered at the point of maximal curvature for the time course. Inset shows the curvature of the bold progress curve as a function of time, with the  $t_Q$ -region demarcated by dashed lines. Parameters for the case shown are:  $(k_1, k_{-1}, k_{cat}) = (1.0, 0.5, 0.5)$ ,  $s_0 = 10K_M$ ,  $e_0 = K_M$ . **(B) Condition number (solid line) and timescale ratio  $t_S/t_Q$  (dashed line) as functions of the  $s_0/K_M$ .** At small values of  $s_0/K_M$ , the inverse problem becomes ill-conditioned. At large values of  $s_0/K_M$ , the region of the progress curve providing information about  $K_M$  becomes increasingly small.

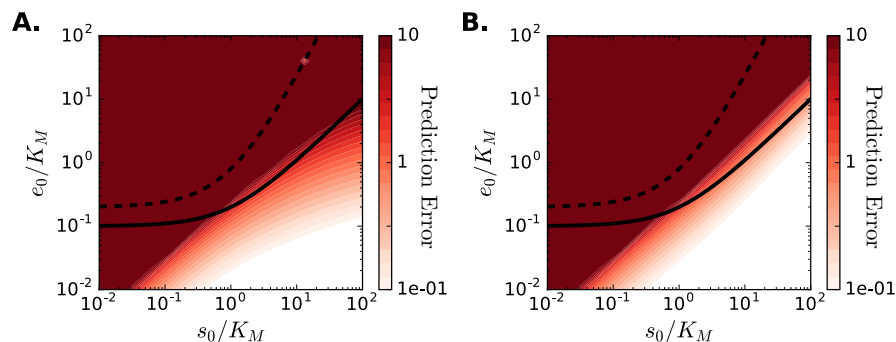


Figure 3: **Error contours of the estimated values  $K_M$  and  $V$ .** Errors in the predicted values of  $K_M$  and  $V$  for different initial substrate and enzyme concentrations are shown to deviate from the conditions for the validity of the reactant stationary assumption (shown as the solid line). The dashed line corresponds to condition (10). For  $s_0/K_M$  values lower than  $10^{-2}$  and greater than  $10^2$ , the fitting algorithm becomes unstable. Note that the color bar scale is logarithmic, showing errors can be significant. In this figure,  $K_S = K = 10$ .

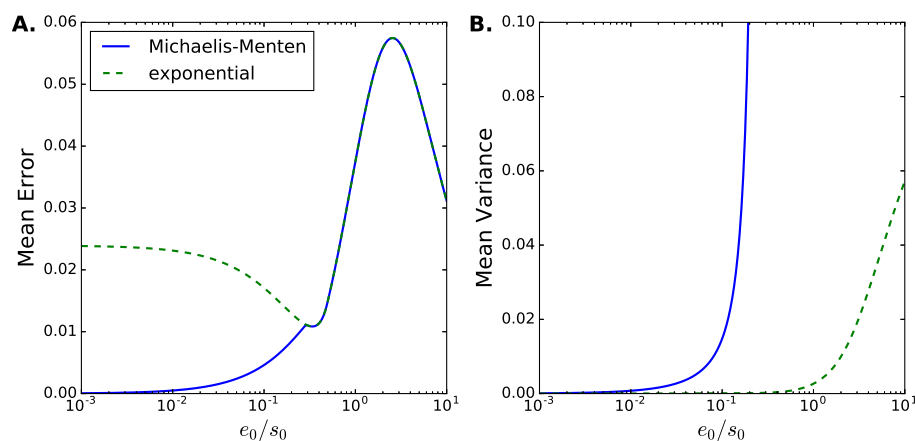


Figure 4: **(A) Mean concentration error, and (B) Mean variance in estimated parameters for the Michaelis-Menten equation and an exponential model.** For initial enzyme concentrations smaller than initial substrate concentrations, the Michaelis-Menten equation provides a noticeably better approximation of the true progress curve than does the exponential model, allowing for both  $V$  and  $K_M$  to be uniquely determined. Parameters for the case shown are:  $(k_1, k_{-1}, k_{\text{cat}}) = (1.0, 0.5, 0.5)$ ,  $t_{\text{obs}} = 3t_s$ ,  $\omega = t_{\text{obs}}/1000$ ,  $s_0 = 1$ .

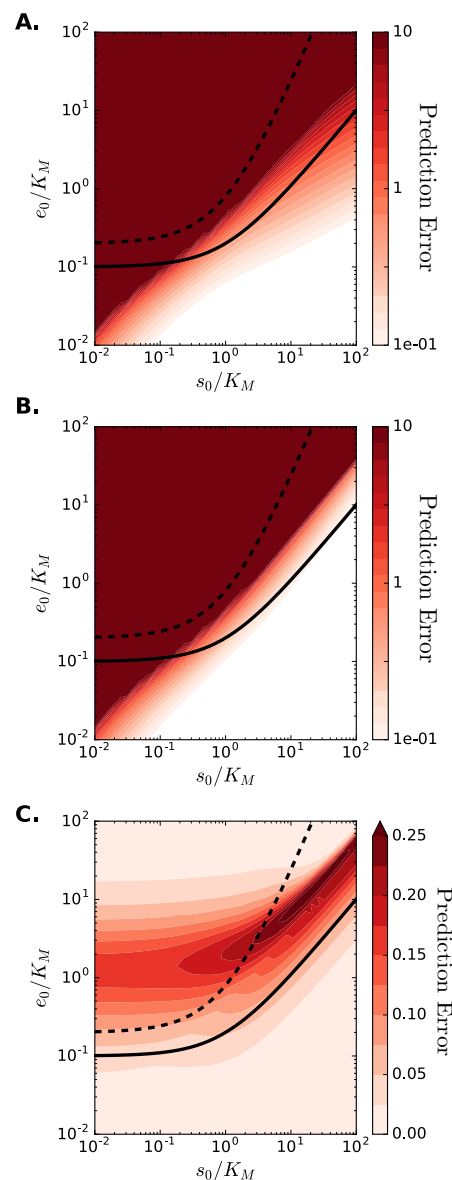


Figure 5: **Error contours when initial substrate concentration,  $s_0$ , is estimated from data.**  $K_M$  and  $V$  prediction errors (panels **A** and **B**, respectively) are qualitatively the same as those found when  $s_0$  is known a priori. The error contours in estimating  $s_0$  (panel **C**) follows the reactant stationary condition, and show accurate estimation is possible when initial enzyme concentration is high and initial substrate concentration is low. Parameters for the case shown are:  $(k_1, k_{-1}, k_{\text{cat}}) = (1.0, 0.5, 0.5)$ ,  $t_{\text{obs}} = 3t_s$ ,  $\omega = t_{\text{obs}}/100$ .

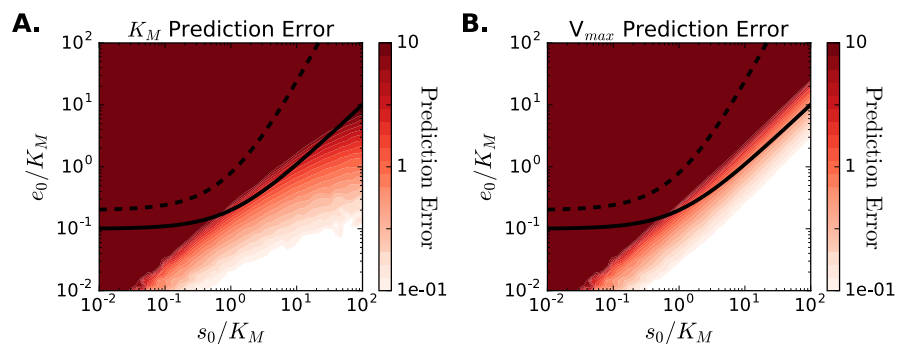


Figure 6: **Error contours for data with Gaussian noise.** When noise is added to the simulated data ( $\delta = 0.01$ ), errors in the estimated parameters worsen compared to noise-free data. Parameters for the case shown are:  $(k_1, k_{-1}, k_{cat}) = (1.0, 0.5, 0.5)$ ,  $t_{obs} = 3t_s$ ,  $\omega = t_{obs}/1000$ .

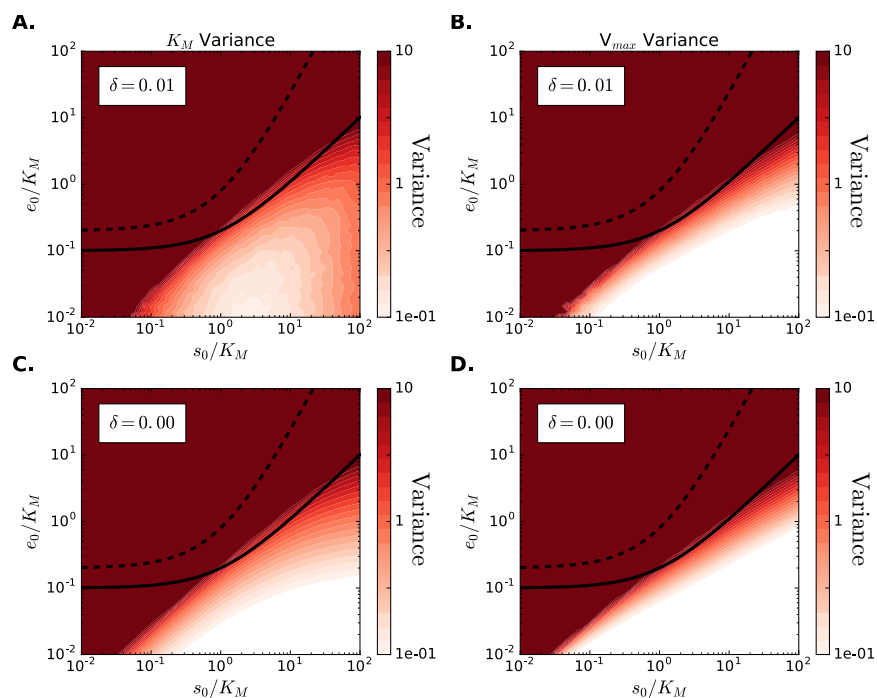


Figure 7: **Computed parameter variance for noisy and noise-free data.** Estimated variance in the parameters  $K_M$  (Panels **A** and **C**) and  $V$  (Panels **B** and **D**) for cases with  $\delta = 0.01$  (**A** and **B**) and no noise (**C** and **D**). Even a small amount of noise restricts the range of conditions providing robust parameter estimates. Parameters for the case shown are:  $(k_1, k_{-1}, k_{\text{cat}}) = (1.0, 0.5, 0.5)$ ,  $t_{\text{obs}} = 3t_s$ ,  $\omega = t_{\text{obs}}/1000$ .