Anatomy of a Real-Life Non-Linear Device: Hydraulic Engine Mount

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ABSTRACT

Hydraulic engine mount is infested with continuous and discontinuous non-linearities and accordingly its parameters significantly vary with the amplitude and frequency of sinusoidal excitation. Typical non-linear characteristics include the non-linear chamber compliances, vacuum formation in the top chamber during the expansion process, non-linear fluid resistances and the switching mechanism of the decoupler. In this paper, we review the historical progress made in the identification and modeling of non-linear dynamic behavior of free and fixed decoupler mounts. Basic concepts, mathematical models and bench tests are summarized. New discontinuous models of top and bottom chamber compliances (depending on the operating point and/or dynamic loading) are briefly proposed. In particular, explicit and implicit non-linearities under realistic excitation conditions are addressed, especially when the mean load itself also varies with time, and when several dynamic (sinusoidal and/or transient) excitations are simultaneously present. Finally, transient response predictions are compared with measurements and the role of multi-staged and time-varying chamber compliances is explained.

1. Introduction

In this article, we will examine the anatomy of a real-life device, hydraulic engine mount. It is designed to be highly non-linear as its parameters, such as stiffness and damping parameters, significantly vary with the amplitude (X) and frequency (f) of sinusoidal excitation [1]. For a free decoupler type mount as shown in Fig. 1, one should expect the following elements to exhibit non-linear behavior [1-16]: First, multi-staged top chamber (#1) compliance $C_1(p_1)$ where $p_1(t)$ is the dynamic chamber pressures and t is time [1-3]; Second, the switching mechanism of the decoupler (d) [2-3,14-16]; Third, non-linear resistances $R_i(q_i)$ and $R_d(q_d)$, where $q_i(t)$ and $q_d(t)$ are the volumetric flow rates through the inertia track (i) and decoupler, respectively [1,10,14-16]; Fourth, lower chamber (#2) compliance $C_2(F_m)$ which varies with preload F_m [10]. Additional non-linearities could include the elastomer non-linearity and squeeze-film effect [4,15], etc. Since Kim and Singh [2-3] initiated the non-linear analysis of hydraulic mounts in early 1990s, much research has been conducted over the past 15 years. Some of the prior work has been summarized by Yu et al. [8], who conducted a literature survey of vehicle engine mounting systems and pointed out the superiority of hydraulic mounts over conventional elastomeric mounts due to frequency- and amplitude-dependency. In this article, we will first review and categorize the historical progress that has been made in understanding and quantifying the mount non-linearities using laboratory experiments and mathematical models. Both explicit and implicit displacement non-linearities under realistic excitation conditions will be addressed. New discontinuous $C_1(p_1)$ and $C_2(F_m)$ models will then be proposed to explain those nonlinearities which are excited under transient or arbitrary loading conditions (say with time-varying mean load and/or multiple frequency components). Finally, typical comparisons between nonlinear models and experiments will be presented.

2. Non-linear studies of hydraulic mount

2.1. Review of non-linear experiments and models

A historical review is summarized in Table 1 with focus on the non-linear modeling and associated bench tests. Kim and Singh [2-3] first measured the non-linear C_1 , C_2 and R_i of a fixed decoupler mount via bench experiments. They also successfully formulated a non-linear model that included a preliminary formulation for the decoupler switching mechanism under harmonic excitations [3]. Colgate et al. [4] tested several mounts under dual sinusoidal excitations and proposed two separate linear models for large and small amplitudes. Royston and Singh [5,6] employed Kim and Singh's model [3] as a localized non-linear time domain model based on a quasilinear model with frequency- and amplitude-dependent parameters. Empirical coefficients were obtained by observing the changes in resonant frequencies and viscous damping ratios given measured mount stiffness K(f, X)

data. Further, Geisberger et al. [8, 10] tested fluid chamber compliances, inertia track and decoupler parameters. They proposed a non-linear model that utilizes a smoothening function to describe the decoupler switching phenomenon. Jazar and Golnaraghi [11] proposed a simple non-linear mathematical model to characterize the decoupler resistance in terms of the Duffing's equation (continuous non-linearity). This leads to semi-analytical solutions using the multiple scale perturbation method and thus the jump phenomenon at resonance could be studied. Foumani et al. [13] conducted a sensitivity analysis and concluded that C_1 and I_i are the most influential parameters in the dynamic stiffness model over the lower frequency range, while C_1 and decoupler inertia m_d are most critical at higher frequencies. Tiwari et al. [14] refined the bench experiments that were initially proposed by Kim and Singh [3] and further quantified C_1 and C_2 parameters under several F_m values. Also, they investigated the vacuum formation that was first observed by Kim and Singh [2-3]. Adiguna et al. [15] examined the mount behavior to idealized transient excitations and successfully predicted the transient responses based on non-linear formulations with experimentally characterized parameters or functions. Recently, we [17] proposed an efficient procedure to estimate the frequency- and amplitude-sensitive parameters of a guasi-linear model based on measured steady state K(f, X) data. Likewise, Lee and Kim [18] have proposed an equivalent viscous damping expression for inertia track based on a non-linear model. The quasi-linear models [17] are capable of partially predicting simple transient response [19] but they may not work when the operational conditions (and thus mount parameters) vary significantly with time. Choi et al. [12] examined the electronically controllable electrorheological (ER) engine mount. Foumani et al. [16] proposed a tunable hydraulic mount design by adjusting the inertia track length and/or effective decoupler area. Further discussion of adaptive and active mounts is beyond the scope of this article.



Fig. 1 Lumped fluid model of a free decoupler mount with inertia track (subscript *i*) and decoupler (subscript *d*). Here, F_m is the preload; $F_T(t)$ is the transmitted force; *x* is the displacement excitation; m_r is the mass of rubber element; k_r and b_r are the rubber element stiffness and damping coefficient; and symbols *C*, *I*, *q*, *R* correspond to chamber compliance, fluid inertia, volumetric flow rate and fluid resistance, respectively.

2.2. Fluid system formulation

In this paper, we will summarize only those equations that are necessary for further development of the non-linear lumped fluid model of Fig. 1. Considering only the time-varying components, the "virtual" driving point force F(t) could be defined as follows where x(t) is the piston displacement and A_r is the effective piston area [17].

$$F(t) = m_r \ddot{x}(t) + b_r \dot{x}(t) + k_r x(t) + A_r p_1(t)$$
(1)

Continuity equations for the top and bottom chambers of Fig. 1 yield:

$$A_r \dot{x}(t) - q_i(t) - q_d(t) = C_1(p_1) \dot{p}_1(t), \qquad q_i(t) + q_d(t) = C_2(F_m) \dot{p}_2(t)$$
(2,3)

Momentum equations for the decoupler and inertia track yield the following:

$$p_1(t) - p_2(t) = I_d \dot{q}_d(t) + R_d(q_d) q_d(t), \qquad p_1(t) - p_2(t) = I_i \dot{q}_i(t) + R_i(q_i) q_i(t) \qquad (4,5)$$

Table 1	Identification	and quantification	of hydraulic	engine	mount non-linearities
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Non-Linear component or system	Investigators [reference number]	Measurements conducted to identify and quantify non- linearities	Modeling of non-linear component, process or system	
	Kim and Singh [2-3]	$p_1(t)$	Switching model controlled by decoupler volume	
Decoupler kinematic or	Royston and Singh [5- 6]		Non-linear decoupler spring with softening effects	
flow characteristics	Geisberger et al. [8,10]	R_d leakage resistance R'_d etc.	Flow model using smoothening function	
	Jazar and Golnaraghi [11]	K(f,X) elastomer test	R_d model using Duffing's equation	
	Tiwari et al. [14]	$p_1(t)$, $F_T(t)$; transient tests	Switching model controlled by	
	Adiguna et al. [15]		squeeze film model	
	He and Singh [20]	Harmonic and transient tests	Implicit decoupler excitation model	
	Kim and Singh [2-3]	Multiple regression of	Two-stage model including vacuum	
Tan shambar	Tiwari et al. [14]	$C_1(p_1), p_1(t)$ polynomials	formation	
compliance	Geisberger et al. [8,10]	Linear curve fit of $C_1(f, X)$	$C_1(f,X)$ model	
C_1	Foumani et al. [13]		Sensitivity analysis of C_1	
	He and Singh [20]	Step up and down tests	Three-stage model including vacuum and hardening effects	
	Kim and Singh [2-3]	Multiple regression and least-	Fluid model including leakage flow	
Inertia track	Tiwari et al. [14] Adiguna et al. [15]	square curve-fit of $R_i(q_i)$	$R_i(q_i)$ model	
resistance	Royston and Singh [5,6]		Semi-analytical model using Galerkin technique	
	Geisberger et al. [8,10]	Least squares fit of $p_2 - p_1$	Laminar and turbulent flow models	
	Foumani et al. [13]		Sensitivity analysis of <i>I_i</i>	
	Lee and Kim [18]	K(f, X) elastomer test	Approximation of <i>R</i> _i	
	Kim and Singh [2-3]	Multiple regression of	$C_2(p_2)$ model	
Bottom	Tiwari et al. [14]	$C_2(p_2)$ polynomial		
chamber	Adiguna et al. [15]			
C_{2}	Geisberger et al. [8,10]	Curve-fit of $C_2(F_m)$	$C_2(F_m)$ model	
2	He and Singh [20]	Transient tests with realistic input	$C_2(F_m)$ model with hardening effect	
	Kim and Singh [1,3]		Quarter-car model	
System level formulation	Colgate et al. [4]		Piecewise linear model; squeeze- film model	
(mounting or vehicle	Jeong and Singh [7]	K(f, X) elastomer test	Synthesis of local non-linearities in frequency domain; half-car model	
system)	He and Singh [17,19]		Quasi-linear model; analytical prediction of step responses	
	Kim and Singh [3]		Adaptive and active control models	
Adaptive and active mounts	Choi and Song [12]	K(f,X) elastomer test	ER fluid model; vehicle model with FR mount	
	Foumani et al. [16]		Tuning of inertia track length and	
			decoupler area	

* Additional non-linear elements may include stiffness k_r and viscous damping b_r of the rubber element.

Note that Eq. (4) dictates the "decoupled" state when the decoupler gap is open, and Eq. (5) is dominant over the "coupled" state with the decoupler gap closes. The dynamic force transmitted to the rigid base is often viewed as a measure of mount performance in non-resonant tests [1]. Its dynamic component $F_T(t)$ is related to F(t) as follows:

$$F_{T}(t) = k_{r}x(t) + b_{r}\dot{x}(t) + A_{r}p_{1}(t) = F(t) - m_{r}\ddot{x}(t)$$
(6)

3. Displacement excitations and associated non-linearities

3.1. Displacement excited non-linearities

We classify explicit and implicit displacement excitation sources as: (i) an explicit composite excitation $x^{t}(t) = x_{m}(t) + x(t)$ externally applied and (ii) an implicit excitation due to the decoupler displacement $x_{d}(t)$. The mean component $x_m(t)$ is defined as the time-varying part $\Delta x(t)$ with same order of magnitude as the time-average of $x^{t}(t)$, and x(t) corresponds to the fluctuation component. By examining typical excitations in Fig. 2, we will analyze the non-linearities that are excited by these. First, the sinusoidal excitation of Fig. 2(a) is commonly applied in dynamic stiffness measurement [1-16], where the constant x_m under a specific preload F_m is usually neglected in the analysis, leaving only the sinusoidal component $x(t) = X \cdot \sin(2\pi t t + \phi)$. In steady state elastomer tests, the dynamic stiffness is evaluated only at the frequency of excitation f and super-harmonics are ignored [1-3]. Second, simple transient tests have been conducted under a constant F_m (or time-invariant x_m), such as the triangular pulse excitation of Fig. 2(b) [10]. Transient responses to the special case of $x^{t}(t) = x_{m}(t) + x(t)$ have been partially predicted by the quasi-linear model [14]. This implies that for an idealized transient excitation when applied at a certain loading condition specified by x_m (or F_m), the mount could behave as a linearized system and its effective parameters could be estimated by using the quasi-linear model [17]. Fourier series expansion may be employed for analyzing a periodic x(t). Third, transient excitations with a rapid change in the mean loading condition such as the step-up excitation in Fig. 2(c) [14,17]. Significant asymmetries were observed in the measured peak values of $F_{T}(t)$ and $p_{1}(t)$ for the step-up and step-down responses, suggesting that a different nonlinear stage has been introduced. Denoting $x_{m,1}$ and $x_{m,2}$ as the operating conditions before and after the switching event, the step-up (-down) excitation is formulated as follows, where Δt represents the short time span during which the step function rises or drops (ideally $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$) due to the limitation of test facility:

$$x^{t}(t) = \begin{cases} x_{m,1} & 0 \le t < t_{1} \\ x_{step}(\Delta t) & t_{1} \le t < t_{1} + \Delta t \\ x_{m,2} & t_{1} + \Delta t < t \end{cases}$$
(7)

Fourth, the most complicated, yet realistic, excitations are considered, which may include the following terms: time-varying (say piece-wise linear) $x_m(t)$ and (ii) dynamic x(t) with multiple and non-commensurate sinusoids at

frequencies
$$f_i$$
: $x^{t}(t) = x_{m,j-1} + \Gamma_i (t - t_{j-1}) + \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \sin(2\pi f_i t + \phi_i)$. A constant slope $\Gamma_i = (x_{m,j} - x_{m,j-1})/(t_j - t_{j-1})$ is

assumed within the j^{th} segment, and a critical slope $\Gamma_c > \Gamma_i$ could be empirically chosen to distinguish Γ_i from the rapid switching case of Eq. (7). The fluctuating part of x(t) could be simplified by considering only the dominant sinusoidal excitation(s), say via the Fast Fourier Transform (FFT). The example case of Fig. 2(d) was measured at the mount location in a front wheel drive vehicle during a typical gear shift event. This transient record contains approximately 3 seconds of data. Several oscillatory displacements (from 5 to 15 Hz) are superimposed on $x_m(t)$ that increases from -4 to -10.5 mm, corresponding to a shift in F_m from -1200 to -4000 N.

3.2. Implicit displacement excitation due to decoupler action

The decoupler displacement $x_d(t)$ is dynamically coupled with instantaneous pressure difference $p_1(t) - p_2(t)$, excitation amplitude X, excitation frequency f and decoupler gap length I_g . In time domain, the decoupler switching mechanism distorts the $p_1(t)$ and $F_T(t)$ waveforms (of a fixed decoupler mount) by introducing flattened regions whenever the decoupler gap opens. Consequently, $x_d(t)$ is categorized as an implicit displacement excitation. Fig. 3 shows the top camber pressure $P_1(f)$ and transmitted force $F_T(f)$ spectra for a take-apart mount with and without the decoupler excited by a sinusoidal excitation with f = 12.5 Hz and X = 0.5 mm (p-p), under $F_m = 1200$ N (or $x_m = 3.7$ mm). Compared with the X(f) spectrum, the $X_d(f)$ spectrum of implicit excitation has discrete peaks not only at the external excitation frequency (12.5 Hz), but also at the 3^{rd} harmonic and higher odd harmonics. Conversely, the peaks at the even harmonics are relatively smaller and remain almost unchanged. It is implied that $x_d(t)$ introduces an implicit excitation at the odd harmonics of external excitation frequency. Similar

phenomena could also be observed and analytically examined given the realistic excitation of Fig. 2(d). This will be reported in a new paper [20].



Fig. 2 Explicit displacement excitations: (a) sinusoidal excitation $x(t) = X \cdot \sin(2\pi t + \phi)$; (b) simple triangular pulse excitation $x^t(t) = x_m(t) + x(t)$; (c) step-up excitation with a non-ideal rise; and (d) a realistic excitation from the measurements in a vehicle. Key for (d): _____, realistic $x^t(t)$; _ . _ , simplified (piecewise linear) mean displacement $x_m(t)$. Each excitation has been experimentally implemented but in some cases abrupt transitions are not seen due to the physical limitations of the test machine [14,15].

4. Discontinuous $C_1(p_1)$ non-linearity

By utilizing the quasi-linear model [17], two distinct effective C_{1e} values could be estimated by best fitting the overshoot or decaying portions for several step-up and step down responses [14,15]. This allows us to estimate C_1 non-linearities and an interesting result emerges: C_{1e} estimated from the overshoot of step-up response (from - 3.7 to 0 mm) is consistent with statically measured C_1 under no preload; meanwhile, C_{1e} estimated from the overshoot of step-down response (from 0 to -3.7 mm) coincides with measured C_1 under -1200 N preload (or $x_m = -3.7$ mm). This suggests that the overshoots in step responses are closely related to the effective operating conditions after the step jump has occurred. Also, the nominal C_{10} value, which is a linearized value based on several operational conditions, lies between the effective C_{1e} values estimated from overshoots in step-up and step-down responses. This implies a dynamic softening effect associated with the unloading process, and a dynamic stiffening effect during the loading process. Kim and Singh [2] and Adiguna et al. [15] observed that the vacuum phenomenon is due to the release of dissolved gas during the expansion process. This gives rise to the dynamic softening effect, as mentioned earlier.



Fig. 3 Fourier amplitudes of $P_1(f)$ and $F_T(f)$ given a sinusoidal excitation with f = 12.5 Hz and X = 0.5 mm (p-p), under $F_m = 1200$ N: (a) $P_1(f)$; (b) $F_T(f)$. Key: \bigcirc , measurement of free decoupler mount; +, measurement of fixed decoupler mount; \square , simulation of free decoupler mount; \times , simulation of fixed decoupler mount.

By using $p_1(t)$ as an indicator of the operating condition, a multi-staged $C_1(p_1)$ model is proposed as follows to capture the asymmetric, mulit-staged non-linearity under vacuum, linear and dynamic loading conditions.

$$C_{1}(p_{1}) = \begin{cases} C_{10} - a_{V} p_{1}^{n_{V}}(t) & p_{1}(t) < 0 \text{ (Vacuum Region)} \\ C_{10} & 0 \le p_{1}(t) \le p_{a} \text{ (Linear Region)} \\ C_{10} - a_{S} \left[p_{1}(t) - p_{a} \right]^{n_{S}} & p_{a} < p_{1}(t) \text{ (Stiffening Region)} \end{cases}$$
(8)

Here, C_{10} dictates the decaying response and p_a is the limiting (atmospheric) pressure beyond which significant stiffening effect will occur. Empirical coefficients a_V and a_S and exponents n_V and n_S could be estimated from measurements. For instances, $a_V =$ 7e-45, $a_S =$ 1.55e-33, $n_V =$ 7, $n_S =$ 4 are estimated for one mount [14, 15]. Fig. 4(d) illustrates the predicted time-varying compliance $C_1(p_1)$ for a fixed decoupler mount. Observe that the stiffening effect occurs only during the loading process under the step-down (loading) process.

5. Discontinuous $C_2(F_m)$ non-linearity

The bottom chamber consists of a thin rubber membrane of irregular shape and it is intentionally designed to yield a large C_2 to accommodate the fluid displaced from the top chamber. Typically, $C_2 >> C_1$ by two orders of magnitude [2-3,14-15]. Due to the complex shape of the rubber bellow, an analytical calculation of C_2 is difficult but it can be curve-fitted from laboratory measurements. Most researchers [4-7] assume a linearized (constant) value of C_2 around a certain operating point that is specified by F_m . Adiguna et al. [15] and Kim and Singh [2-4] have briefly discussed the effects of F_m on the chamber compliances. First, F_m dictates the operating point about which the non-linear compliances are estimated. Second, F_m determines the mean fluid pressure under the static equilibrium. However, when F_m varies with time in some real-life operational conditions such as excitation of Fig. 2(d), a piecewise non-linear $C_2(F_m)$ or $C_2(x_m)$ as given by Eq. (9) must be utilized to fully capture the stiffening effect under higher F_m (or x_m). This gives rise to a significant increase in the mean chamber pressure as observed in measurements. Detailed results including comparison with experiments will be reported in an upcoming paper [20].

$$C_2\left(F_m(t)\right) = C_{2,j-1} + \frac{C_{2,j} - C_{2,j-1}}{t_j - t_{j-1}} \left(t - t_{j-1}\right)$$
(9)



Fig. 4 Transient response of a fixed decoupler given step-down excitation mount: (a) displacement excitation x(t) from 0 to -3.7 mm; (b) transmitted force $F_T(t)$; (c) top chamber pressure $p_1(t)$; and (d) multi-staged and time-varying $C_1(t)$. Key for (b) and (c): _____, non-linear simulation using multi-staged $C_1(p_1)$ model; _ ___, non-linear simulation using a constant C_{10} ; _ __, measurement.

6. Conclusion

Chief contributions of this article include a historic review of the progress made in the identification of mount non-linearities, discussion of new discontinuous non-linearities (C_1 and C_2 models depending on the operating point(s) and/or dynamic loading) and prediction of the transient responses. Other contributions include a classification method for explicit displacement excitations (including a realistic profile) and implicit excitation that is introduced by the decoupler at the odd harmonics of the (explicit) fundamental frequency. New non-linear phenomena are explained in terms of the multi-staged (and time-varying) descriptions of C_1 and C_2 . Finally, we successfully validate new or refined non-linear formulations by comparing predictions with measurements in terms of the top chamber pressure $p_1(t)$ and transmitted force $F_T(t)$. Results match well in both time and frequency domains. New formulations will be incorporated in vehicle dynamic models. Finally, this paper also shows that

considerable experimental and analytical work is often needed over a sustained period to diagnose and predict the non-linear behavior of real-life devices. Lessons learned in our work could be applied to other non-linear devices and systems.

Acknowledgement

We acknowledge the efforts of prior Acoustics and Dynamics Laboratory researchers whose work is still being analyzed and utilized: G. Kim, M. Tiwari, H. Adiguna and J. Sorenson.

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