

1 Article

2 Deformation Analysis of Reinforced Beams Made of 3 Lightweight Aggregate Concrete

4 Darius Bacinskas ^{1,*}, Deividas Rumsys ², Aleksandr Sokolov ³ and Gintaris Kaklauskas ¹

5 ¹ Department of Reinforced Concrete Structures and Geotechnics, Vilnius Gediminas Technical University,
6 Sauletekio av. 11, LT-10223 Vilnius, Lithuania; darius.bacinskas@vgtu.lt; gintaris.kaklauskas@vgtu.lt

7 ² SRP Projektas Ltd, Savanorių pr. 176c, LT-03154 Vilnius, Lithuania; deividas.rumsys@srp-projektas.lt

8 ³ Laboratory of Innovative Building Structures, Vilnius Gediminas Technical University,

9 Sauletekio av. 11, LT-10223 Vilnius, Lithuania; aleksandr.sokolov@vgtu.lt

10 * Correspondence: darius.bacinskas@vgtu.lt; Tel.: +370-674-23 717

11 **Abstract:** In the present trend of constructing taller and longer structures, the application of
12 lightweight aggregate concrete is becoming an increasing important advanced solution in the
13 modern construction industry. In engineering practice, the analysis of lightweight concrete elements
14 is performed using the same algorithms used for normal concrete elements. As an alternative to
15 traditional engineering methods, nonlinear numerical algorithms based on constitutive material
16 models may be used. The paper presents a comparative analysis of curvature calculations for
17 flexural lightweight concrete elements, incorporating analytical code methods EN 1992-1 and ACI
18 318-14, as well as a numerical analysis using the constitutive model of cracked tensile lightweight
19 concrete recently proposed by the authors. To evaluate the adequacy of the theoretical predictions,
20 experimental data of 51 lightweight concrete beams tested during five different programmes were
21 collected. A comparison of theoretical and experimental results showed that the most accurate
22 predictions are obtained using numerical analysis and the constitutive model proposed by the
23 authors. In the future, the latter algorithm can be used as a reliable tool for improving the design
24 standard methods or numerical modelling of lightweight concrete elements subjected to short-term
25 loading.

26 **Keywords:** lightweight aggregate concrete; reinforced concrete; flexural elements; curvature; short-
27 term loading; tension stiffening; constitutive model; numerical modelling.

29 1. Introduction

30 Concrete has become the most widely used construction material worldwide. Moreover,
31 concrete is the most widely used synthetic material. Compared with other materials, only water is
32 used in greater quantities [1]. Over the past 30 years, concrete production has increased by a factor
33 of > 3 times to approximately 3.8 billion m³ per year [1]. This represents > 1 m³ per person per year
34 worldwide [2]. Compared with other traditional construction materials (e.g., steel, timber, polymers,
35 aluminium), the amount of concrete production is twice that of other traditional materials combined.
36 By 2050, world concrete production is projected to be a factor of four higher than the 1990 level [3].

37 The increasing amount of concrete production leads to a rising demand for innovative solutions
38 for concrete structures and their implementation in real construction projects [4]. In the present trend
39 of constructing taller and longer structures, the application of lightweight aggregate concrete is
40 becoming an increasing important advanced solution in the modern construction industry.
41 Numerous studies around the world have been dedicated to research in the field of lightweight
42 aggregate concrete. Consequently, various concrete mixtures with different mechanical properties
43 have been proposed [5–10]. However, in most cases, traditional studies usually address the
44 optimisation of concrete properties with respect to one or more aspects, such as microstructure,
45 mechanical resistance, and durability [6–9]. Consequently, the obtained findings do not lead to the

46 final expected effect [5]. The improvement of selected material properties is accompanied by changes
47 in other important parameters [9]. Moreover, experimental results are usually achieved by testing on
48 small-scale specimens. Despite the fact that standardised techniques for material testing are usually
49 applied, the obtained results and material models sometimes do not reflect the real mechanical
50 behaviour of large-scale load-bearing structures [11, 12]. The application of advanced concrete mixes
51 for structural members must be analysed in an integral way—starting from the optimal composition
52 test and ending with the evaluation of structural behaviour of large-scale prototype members
53 subjected to real operating conditions and external mechanical loading [5].

54 In current engineering practice, for the limit state analysis of reinforced lightweight concrete and
55 normal concrete elements, the same algorithms are applied [13, 14]. The influence of lightweight
56 aggregate concrete on the structural behaviour is taken into account by introducing additional
57 empirical coefficients that depend on the concrete density. However, the obtained predictions of
58 lightweight concrete members in most cases do not correspond to their real mechanical behaviour—
59 both crack width and deformation of lightweight concrete elements are underestimated [15], and the
60 errors can reach $> 100\%$ [5]. These tendencies can be explained by the fact that lightweight concrete
61 significantly differs from normal concrete. In particular, the properties of lightweight concrete are
62 highly dependent on the type, amount, and mechanical properties of the selected lightweight
63 aggregates [10, 16] as well as the technological aspects of concrete mix preparation [17, 18].
64 Traditional engineering methods, which during many years have been developed to improve
65 normal-weight concrete mixes, usually are insufficient for evaluating these factors.

66 Another important, though often neglected, aspect of the serviceability analysis can be attributed
67 to the assessment of the restrained shrinkage-induced stress–strain state at the pre-loading stage [19,
68 20]. Some researchers note [14, 21] that early-age cracking of reinforced lightweight concrete elements
69 occur, in particular, because of shrinkage of concrete in combination with lower tensile strength.
70 These effects are not taken into account in traditional engineering techniques.

71 The application of performance-based design concepts in advanced structural engineering has
72 increased the integration of alternative numerical methods in the design process of complex modern
73 structures [22, 23]. Adequate constitutive models representing the behaviour of concrete and
74 reinforcement, as well as their interaction, must be used in the following algorithms. Numerous
75 physical models have been proposed for the analysis of conventional reinforced concrete elements
76 [19, 20, 24–26]. However, studies in the field of constitutive modelling of lightweight aggregate
77 concrete are insufficient and still require a solution because advanced lightweight concrete is a
78 relatively new material [27].

79 This paper presents a comparative analysis of curvature calculations for flexural lightweight
80 aggregate concrete elements, incorporating analytical code methods (EN 1992-1 (EC2) [28] and
81 ACI 318-14 (ACI) [29]), as well as a numerical analysis using the constitutive model of cracked tensile
82 lightweight concrete recently proposed by the authors [5, 21]. To evaluate the adequacy of the
83 theoretical predictions, experimental data of 51 lightweight concrete beams tested during five
84 different programmes were collected. The reinforcement ratio of the experimental beams ranged
85 from 0.33%–2.82%, the density ranged from 1651–2000 kg/m³, and the compressive strength of
86 concrete ranged from 20–70 MPa. A comparison of theoretical and experimental results showed that
87 the most accurate predictions are obtained using numerical analysis and the constitutive model
88 proposed by the authors. In the future, the latter algorithm can be used as a reliable tool for improving
89 the design standard methods or numerical modelling of lightweight concrete elements subjected to
90 short-term loading.

91 2. Calculation Methods Employed for Comparative Analysis

92 2.1. Eurocode 2 (EC2)

93 According to EC2 [28] methodology, curvatures of reinforced lightweight concrete beams are
94 calculated using the same relationships as for normal weight-reinforced concrete elements. The
95 algorithm distinguishes two stages of deformation of reinforced concrete elements. In the first stage

96 (before cracking), the element behaviour is fully elastic, and the curvature is calculated by applying
 97 the fundamental relationships of material mechanics. In the second stage (during which the element
 98 is fully cracked), tensile stresses are entirely carried by the tensile reinforcement. At this stage, the
 99 curvature is calculated using the geometric characteristics of the fully cracked cross section.

100 The mean curvature at any intermediate stress–strain stage can be assessed by interpolation
 101 between values calculated for stages I and II. Using this concept, the tension-stiffening effect is taken
 102 into account. The mean curve is calculated by the following formula:

$$\kappa = (1 - \zeta) \frac{M}{E_{lcm} I_u} + \zeta \frac{M}{E_{lcm} I_c}, \quad (1)$$

103 where κ is the mean curvature of the cross section, M is the bending moment at the considered load
 104 level, I_u is the moment of inertia of the non-cracked cross section, and I_c is the moment of inertia of
 105 the fully cracked cross section. E_{lcm} is the average modulus of elasticity of lightweight aggregate
 106 concrete calculated by using

$$E_{lcm} = 22(f_{lcm}/10)^{0.3}(\rho/2200)^2, \quad (2)$$

107 where f_{lcm} is the average compressive strength of lightweight aggregate concrete, and ρ is the density
 108 of concrete. Here, ζ is the interpolation coefficient; if the cross section is not cracked, $\zeta = 0$; otherwise,
 109 it is calculated by using

$$\zeta = 1 - \beta \left(\frac{M_{cr}}{M} \right)^2, \quad (3)$$

110 where M_{cr} is the cracking moment, and β is the coefficient that takes into account the influence of the
 111 loading duration (short or long-term) as well as type of loading (static or cyclic) on the average
 112 deformations. The coefficient β is 1 and 0.5 for short-term static loads and long-term or cyclical loads,
 113 respectively.

114 EC2 also provides an expression for the calculation of the curve caused by concrete shrinkage
 115 deformations:

$$\kappa_{cs} = \varepsilon_{cs} \alpha_e \frac{S}{I}, \quad (4)$$

116 where ε_{cs} is the free shrinkage deformation, α_e is the ratio of reinforcement and concrete modulus of
 117 elasticity (effective modular ratio), S is the first moment of area of the reinforcement about the
 118 centroid of the section, and I is the second moment of the area of the section. The above relationship
 119 is commonly used to calculate long-term curvatures with curvature increases caused by shrinkage
 120 taken into account. However, EC2 does not provide any direct recommendations for short-term
 121 deformational analysis to evaluate the shrinkage effect in the pre-loading stage. As mentioned above,
 122 concrete free shrinkage is restrained by reinforcement, causing tension stresses in concrete even
 123 before loading. Depending on the shrinkage value and reinforcement ratio, this can significantly
 124 decrease the cracking limit and can result in considerable prediction errors [20].

125 2.2. ACI 318-14 (ACI)

126 According to the ACI standard [29], the curvature of non-cracked cross-sectional elements is
 127 calculated using the following fundamental formula, considering elastic geometric and physical
 128 characteristics:

$$\kappa = \frac{M}{E_{lc} I_g}, \quad (5)$$

129 where M is the maximum bending moment, I_g is the moment of inertia of the non-cracked gross
 130 section, and E_{lc} is the modulus of elasticity of lightweight aggregate concrete calculated by the
 131 following formula:

$$E_{lc} = 0,043\rho^{1.5}\sqrt{f_c}, \quad (6)$$

132 where f_c is the compressive strength (in MPa).

133 The effective moment of inertia of the cracked cross section is calculated by interpolation
 134 between the moments of inertia of the non-cracked (I_g) and the fully cracked (I_{cr}) cross sections:

$$I_e = \left(\frac{M_{cr}}{M}\right)^3 I_g + \left[1 - \left(\frac{M_{cr}}{M}\right)^3\right] I_{cr} \leq I_g, \quad (7)$$

135 where M_{cr} is the cracking moment calculated as follows:

$$M_{cr} = \frac{f_r I_g}{y_t}, \quad (8)$$

136 where f_r is the modulus of rupture, and y_t is the distance from the centroid of the gross concrete section
 137 to the bottom tensile layer.

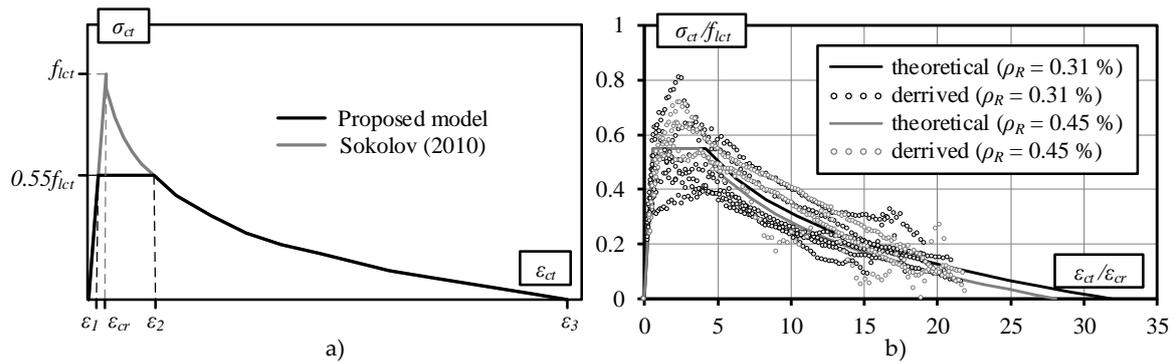
138 The curvature of the cracked element is calculated with formula (5) using the effective moment
 139 of inertia:

$$\kappa = \frac{M}{E_{lc} I_e}. \quad (9)$$

140 2.3. Numerical Method for Deformation Analysis Using a Tension-Stiffening Model of Lightweight 141 Aggregate Concrete

142 As an alternative to design codes, numerical methods with incorporated constitutive models of
 143 materials can be used to assess nonlinear stress–strain behaviour of reinforced concrete members.
 144 The current study applies the modified tension-stiffening relationship originally proposed by
 145 Sokolov [24] for traditional reinforced concrete. The modified and original models are presented in
 146 Figure 1a.

147 Constitutive modelling techniques for deriving the modified model including applied
 148 experimental results of flexural reinforced lightweight concrete beams are discussed in more detail
 149 in references [5, 21]. The basic aspects of the physical modelling are presented below. The
 150 methodology is based on the layered section model, implying the successive application of the direct
 151 (curvature prediction) and inverse (constitutive modelling) approaches. The method proposed by
 152 Kaklauskas and Ghaboussi [30] was applied for constitutive modelling to obtain average stress and
 153 average strain diagrams for cracked tensile concrete. The mathematical algorithm of the applied
 154 inverse procedure is discussed in more detail in [20, 24, 31]. Experimental stress–strain diagrams
 155 representing the tension-stiffening effect for flexural members have been obtained by performing a
 156 three-step computation. The latter includes the elimination of the concrete shrinkage effect on the
 157 stress–strain behaviour of reinforced concrete members before loading [20]. In the first step, using an
 158 inverse procedure [30], average tensile stress–strain diagrams are obtained from experimental
 159 moment–curvature relationships. In the second step, the obtained curves are used in the direct
 160 approach with shrinkage deformations taken into account. By using the above technique, the
 161 modified moment–curvature diagrams for experimental specimens are obtained by eliminating the
 162 influence of shrinkage deformations. In the final step, the modified moment–curvature diagrams are
 163 used again in the inverse algorithm. Consequently, tension-stiffening diagrams with shrinkage
 164 eliminated are derived. Examples of the normalised tension-stiffening diagrams obtained using the
 165 above procedure together with the proposed model are presented in Figure 1b.



166

167 **Figure 1.** Tension-stiffening model of structural lightweight concrete: (a) theoretical diagrams;
 168 (b) normalized stress-strain diagrams obtained for the selected experimental beams

169 The proposed modified constitutive model (Figure 1a) is approximated by a three-curve
 170 diagram. The ascending branch of the curve represents the elastic behaviour of the reinforced
 171 concrete before cracking. Meanwhile, the horizontal line and descending branch describe the stages
 172 of crack formation and further development, respectively. According to [5], the ultimate tensile
 173 strength is $\sigma_{ct} = 0.55f_{lct}$, where f_{lct} is the average tensile strength of lightweight aggregate concrete
 174 calculated according to the EC2 standard. The strain ε_1 corresponding to the ultimate tensile stress is
 175 determined by the following relationship:

$$\varepsilon_1 = 0.55\varepsilon_{cr}, \quad (10)$$

176 where $\varepsilon_{cr} = f_{lct} / E_{lcm}$ is the theoretical cracking strain corresponding to the tensile strength, and E_{lcm}
 177 is the modulus of elasticity of concrete calculated according to EC2 depending on the compressive
 178 strength of concrete.

179 The shape of the descending part of the diagram is described by the following formula [5, 24]:

$$\sigma_{ct} = f_{lct} \left(1 - 0.27 \ln \left(\frac{\varepsilon_{ct}}{\varepsilon_{cr}} \right) - 0.21\rho_R \right), \quad (11)$$

180 The strain ε_2 is calculated by using the relationship derived in Equation (11), and the ultimate
 181 tensile stress of concrete, $\sigma_{ct} = 0.55f_{lct}$:

$$\varepsilon_2 = \varepsilon_{cr} e^{1.667 - 0.78\rho_R}. \quad (12)$$

182 The length of the descending branch is defined by the maximal strain ε_3 corresponding to zero
 183 stress. This strain is calculated by the following formula:

$$\varepsilon_3 = \varepsilon_{cr} e^{3.7 - 0.78\rho_R}. \quad (13)$$

184 A nonlinear numerical analysis was performed using the finite element software ATENA. Two-
 185 dimensional finite element models of experimental reinforced concrete elements were created
 186 employing constitutive models for compressive and tensile concrete and reinforcement. The
 187 behaviour of the reinforcement is represented by an elastic-plastic model corresponding to the yield
 188 strength of steel and modulus of elasticity. A linear elastic diagram was used to model the
 189 compressive concrete. The proposed constitutive model (Figure 1a) was used to describe the
 190 behaviour of lightweight aggregate concrete in tension. Smear crack and fracture mechanics
 191 approaches are combined in ATENA to assess the nonlinear behaviour of reinforced concrete
 192 elements after cracking.

193 The results of the nonlinear analysis strongly depend on the size of the finite mesh. Previous
 194 studies [32, 33] have shown that the accuracy of numerical analysis results obtained by ATENA is
 195 sufficient using six finite elements per model height. According to the recommendations [32], the
 196 mesh size was normalised by assuming a 20 mm characteristic finite element length. Such
 197 normalisation enables to eliminate the influence of the obtained results on the finite element mesh

198 size. Isoparametric quadrilateral finite elements of eight degrees of freedom with four integration
 199 points were used to model the concrete beams. Reinforcement bars were modelled with truss finite
 200 elements. It should also be emphasised that shrinkage deformations prior to short-term loading have
 201 been taken into account in the numerical analysis. Shrinkage was modelled as a prescribed
 202 deformation affecting concrete macroelements [33]. The modelling aspects are described in more
 203 detail in reference [21].

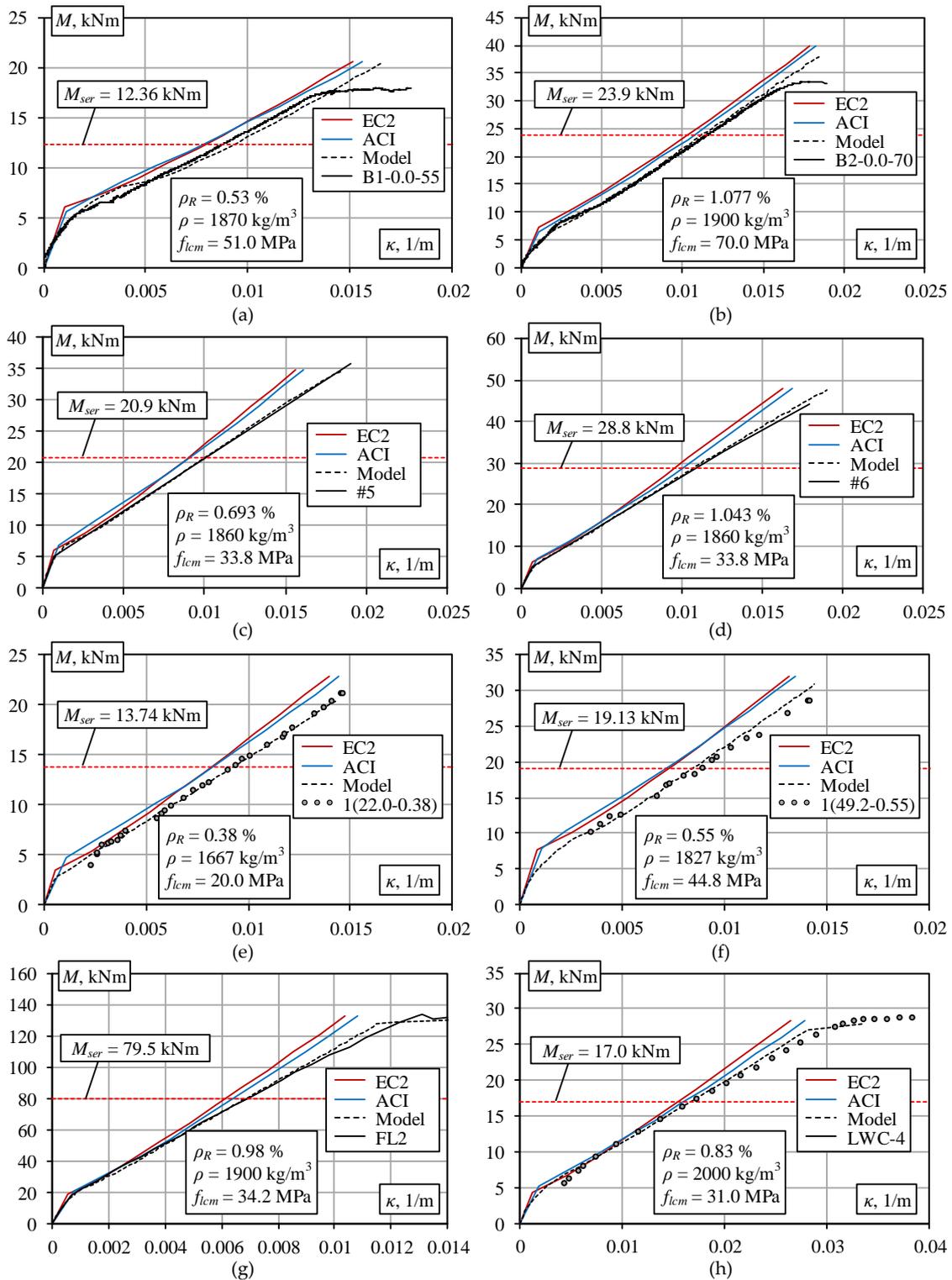
204 3. Database of Experimental Results and Accuracy Analysis of Predictions

205 The database consists of data from 51 lightweight aggregate concrete flexural elements obtained
 206 from five different test programmes reported by Carmo et al. [15], Sin et al. [14], Bernardo et al. [34],
 207 Wu et al. [35], and Vakhshouri [26]. The main characteristics of the flexural elements are given in
 208 Table 1. The reinforcement percentage of the experimental beams ranged from 0.33%–2.82%, the
 209 density ranged from 1651–2000 kg/m³, and the compressive strength of concrete ranged from 20–
 210 70.1 MPa. Missing data (e.g., tensile strength of concrete, shrinkage deformations) required for the
 211 numerical analysis were calculated using the relationships given in the EC2 standards.

212 **Table 1.** Main characteristics of experimental beams

No.	Reference	Number of beams	L_0 , m	h , mm	b , mm	ρ_R , %	ρ , kg/m ³	f_{cm} , MPa
1	Carmo et al. [15]	13	2.80	270	120	0.53–2.82	1870–1900	37.0–70.0
2	Sin et al. [14]	18	2.80	300	150	0.69–2.27	1700–2000	25.1–70.1
3	Bernardo et al. [34]	14	2.40	300	150	0.38–2.69	1651–1953	20.0–55.0
4	Wu et al. [35]	3	4.00	400	250	0.33–1.310	1900	34.2
5	Vakhshouri [26]	3	3.50	161	400	0.83	2000	31.0
Total:		51	2.40–4.00	161–400	120–400	0.33–2.82	1651–2000	20.0–70.1

213 Comparison of the theoretical and experimental results of the selected eight beams is given in
 214 Figure 2. In the figure, ρ_R corresponds to the reinforcement percentage, ρ is the concrete density, and
 215 f_{cm} is the compressive strength of lightweight concrete. Results are compared at the loading level
 216 $M_{ser} = 0.6M_{Rm}$, where M_{Rm} is the ultimate bending moment calculated according to EC2 (shown in
 217 Figure 2 by red dashed line).
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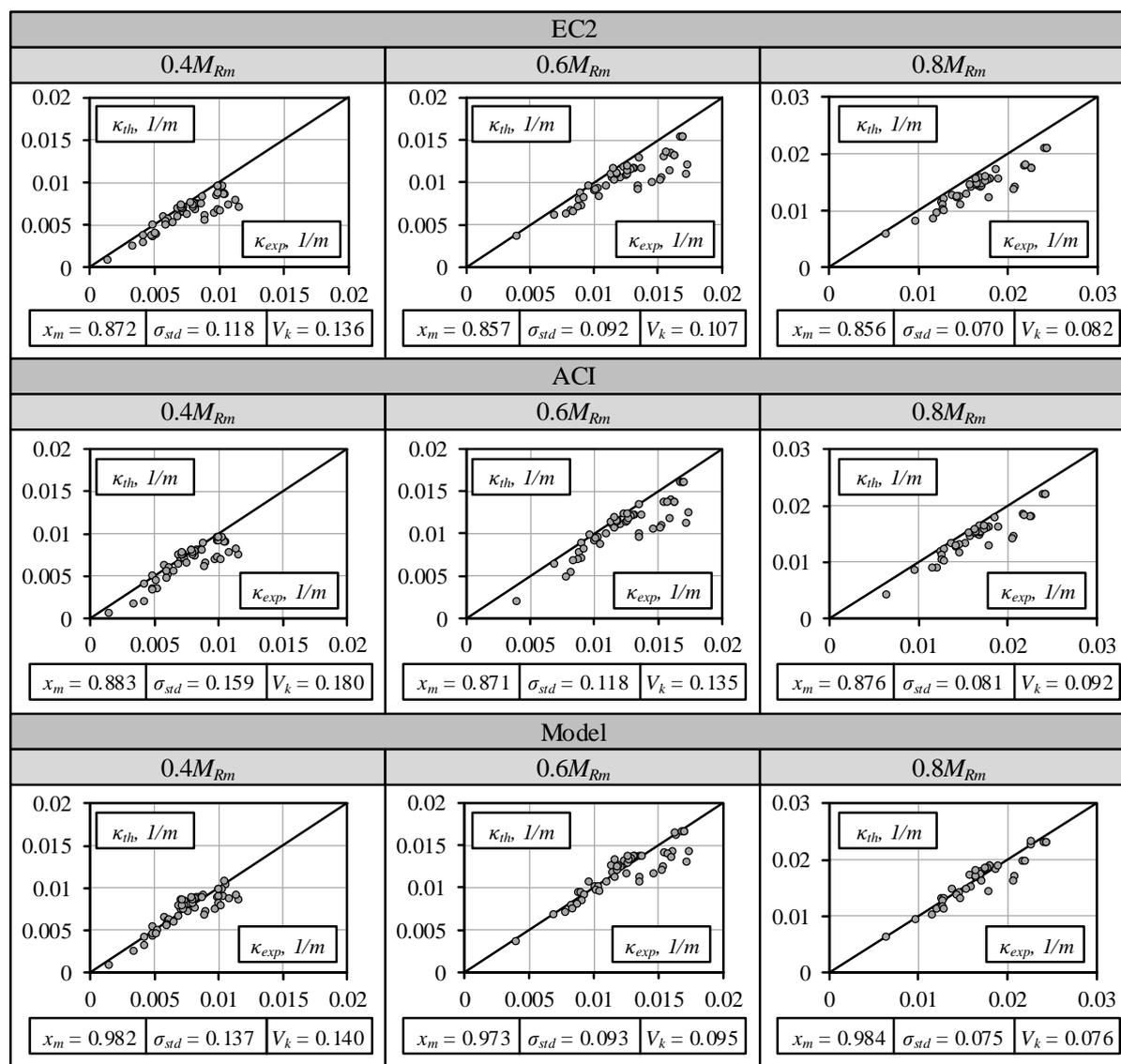


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221 **Figure 2.** Comparison of theoretical and experimental moment-curvature diagrams: (a) and
 222 (b) Carmo et al. [18]; (c) and (d) Sin et al. [14]; (e) and (f) Bernardo et al. [34]; (g) Wu et al. [35];
 223 (h) Vakhshouri [26]

224 The comparison of the experimental curvatures against the theoretical results predicted by EC2
 225 and ACI codes as well as the numerical approach is shown in Figure 3. The predictions are made at
 226 three different loading levels: $0.4M_{Rm}$, $0.6M_{Rm}$ (M_{ser}), and $0.8M_{Rm}$. The mean value (x_m), standard
 227 deviation (σ_{std}), and coefficient of variation (V_k) of the relative curvature (κ_{th}/κ_{exp}) are shown at the
 228 bottom of each graph in this figure. The mean errors of 12.8%, 14.3%, and 14.4% are obtained for the

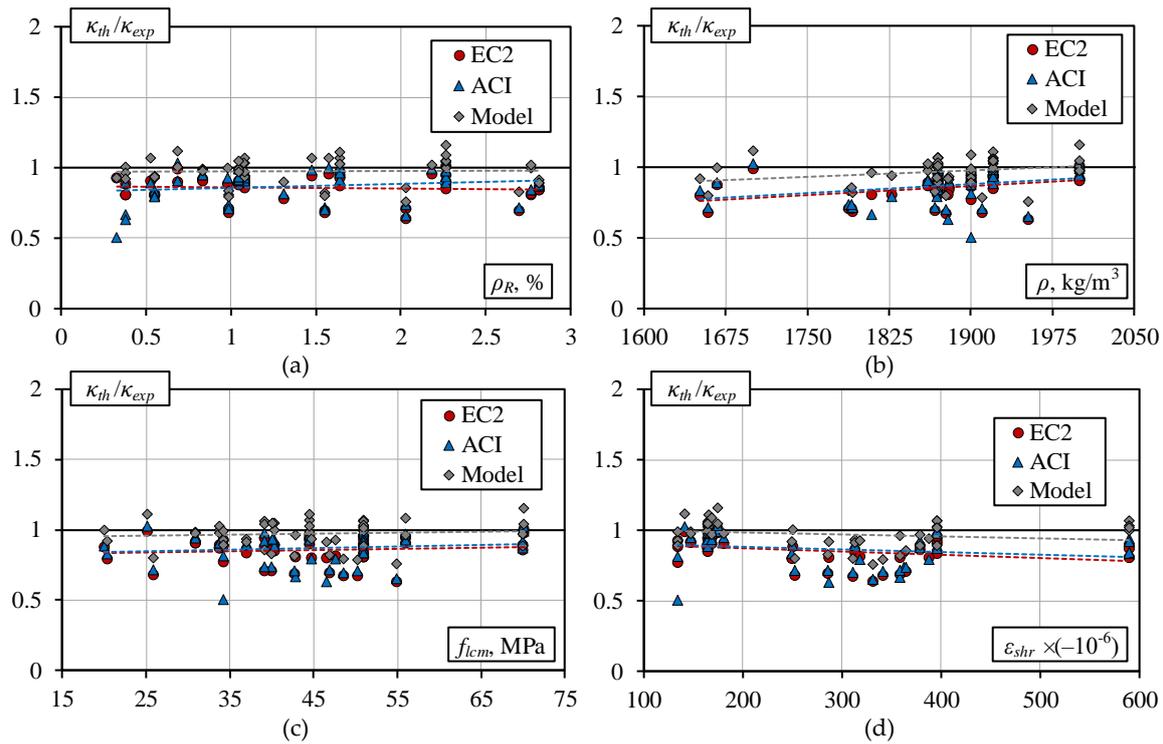
229 EC2 standard at load levels of $0.4M_{Rm}$, $0.6M_{Rm}$, and $0.8M_{Rm}$, respectively. The computational errors are
 230 rather modest and do not depend on the load level. Slightly smaller mean errors of 11.7%, 12.9%, and
 231 12.4% assessed at the same load levels are obtained by using the ACI method. The predictions of the
 232 numerical model resulted in 1.8%, 2.7%, and 1.6% mean curvature errors obtained at load levels of
 233 $0.4M_{Rm}$, $0.6M_{Rm}$, and $0.8M_{Rm}$, respectively. It is important to note that EC2 and ACI code methods
 234 produced predictions that were too stiff.



235

236 **Figure 3.** Comparison of experimental and theoretical curvatures at different load levels

237 Figure 4 shows the scatter of the normalised curvature predictions for ranges of material and
 238 geometrical parameters such as reinforcement percentage ρ_R , concrete density ρ , compressive
 239 strength of concrete, f_{cm} , and shrinkage deformation ε_{shr} . The latter results were obtained for a service
 240 load $M_{ser} = 0.6M_{Rm}$. Figure 4 shows that none of the listed parameters, except concrete density and
 241 shrinkage strain, significantly affects the prediction accuracy in any of the methods. There is a general
 242 tendency that accuracy decreases with a rise in density and an increase in free shrinkage strain.
 243 Comparison of the results demonstrates that in all cases the proposed approach gives the most
 244 accurate predictions of mean normalised curvature as the respective trend-line approaches the unity
 245 line (shown as a black solid line).



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Figure 4. Relative curvatures estimate by different methods vs: (a) reinforcement ratio ρ_R ; (b) density ρ ; (c) compressive strength f_{cm} ; (d) deformation of shrinkage ε_{shr}

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4. Conclusions

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A comparison analysis of theoretical and experimental results of deformations of reinforced lightweight concrete beams yields the following conclusions:

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1. In engineering practice, the analysis of lightweight concrete elements is performed using the same algorithms used for normal concrete elements. The influence of lightweight concrete on the structural behaviour is evaluated by additional density-dependent empirical coefficients. This prediction of the behaviour of lightweight concrete often does not correspond to the real behaviour of the structure. In many cases, the deformation of reinforced lightweight aggregate concrete elements is underestimated, and the resulting errors can reach $> 100\%$.
2. As an alternative to traditional engineering methods, nonlinear numerical algorithms based on physical material models that reflect the behaviour of elements at various stages of operation may be used. Although many physical models of concrete have been proposed for the prediction of load carrying capacity and deformations in conventional reinforced concrete elements, there are no reliable physical models for the numerical analysis of reinforced lightweight aggregate concrete elements.
3. The physical model proposed by the authors in previous studies for conventional reinforced concrete elements was used in a comparative deformation analysis. Stresses characterising the cracking limit were reduced in the modified model by considering the characteristics of formation of lightweight concrete cracks. The proposed model is approximated by a three-curve diagram. The rising part of the curve describes the elastic behaviour of concrete before cracking. The horizontal and descending parts of the curve describe the stages of formation and development of cracks, respectively.
4. The adequacy of results obtained by design code techniques and numerical modelling method was verified by employing experimental data of reinforced lightweight aggregate concrete elements published in the literature. The data sample consisted of 51 flexural elements obtained from five different test programmes. Numerical analysis of experimental beams was performed

- 275 using the nonlinear finite element software ATENA and the constitutive model proposed by the
276 authors to model the behaviour of the cracked tensile concrete.
- 277 5. A comparison of theoretical and experimental results reveals that the most accurate calculation
278 results are obtained by using the numerical model. At the service load level ($M_{ser} = 0.6M_{Rm}$, where
279 M_{Rm} is the theoretical average bearing bending moment calculated by EC2), the mean value of
280 the relative curvature (κ_{th}/κ_{exp}) obtained by using the numerical model was 0.973, and the
281 standard deviation was 0.093. By using the EC2 standard, the mean value of the relative
282 curvature κ_{th}/κ_{exp} was 0.857, and the standard deviation was 0.092. The mean and standard
283 deviation values of 0.871 and 0.118, respectively, were obtained by using the ACI standard
284 method. The comparative analysis shows that EC2 and ACI code methods produced predictions
285 that were too stiff.
- 286 6. The influence of the reinforcement percentage ρ_R , concrete density ρ , compressive strength of
287 concrete, f_{cm} , and shrinkage deformation ε_{shr} has little effect on the mean curvatures predicted
288 by the code and numerical methods. There is a general tendency that the accuracy of the methods
289 decreases with the rise in density and the increase in free shrinkage strain. Comparison of results
290 demonstrates that in all cases the proposed approach gives the most accurate predictions of
291 mean normalised curvature.
- 292 7. In the future, the proposed constitutive model of lightweight aggregate concrete together with
293 numerical finite element algorithms can be used as a reliable tool for improving the design code
294 techniques or for adequate numerical modelling of reinforced lightweight aggregate concrete
295 elements under short-term loading.

296 **Author Contributions:** D. Bacinskas and D. Rumsys conceived the idea of the work. D. Rumsys collected and
297 analysed the experimental data. D. Bacinskas, D. Rumsys, G. Kaklauskas and A. Sokolov made the theoretical
298 analysis of experimental beams, compared the theoretical and experimental results, wrote the paper.
299 D. Bacinskas and G. Kaklauskas concluded the main findings.

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