

Masterclass Certificate in Fencing Nutrition for Endurance

Energy Systems for Fencing Performance

Aerobic metabolism is the process by which cells generate adenosine triphosphate (ATP) using oxygen as the final electron acceptor. In fencing, the aerobic system predominates during prolonged bouts, recovery periods between exchanges, and during the warm-up and cool-down phases. The efficiency of this system is reflected in a fencer's ability to maintain a steady pace over the duration of a match without excessive fatigue. For example, a fencer who can sustain a heart-rate zone of 130–150 beats per minute for the entire three-minute bout is likely relying heavily on aerobic pathways. Practical application includes incorporating steady-state cardio sessions such as rowing or cycling at 60–70 % of maximal oxygen uptake ($\text{VO}_2 \text{ max}$) to enhance mitochondrial density and capillary networks. A common challenge is balancing aerobic training with the need for high-intensity, short-duration work that mimics the explosive nature of a lunge or riposte.

Phosphagen system (also called the ATP-CP or alactic system) provides immediate energy for actions lasting up to ten seconds. It relies on stored ATP and creatine phosphate (CP) within the muscle cell. In fencing, a single rapid attack, such as a direct thrust, is powered predominantly by this system. Because the phosphagen stores are limited, recovery of CP occurs during brief rest intervals, typically 30–60 seconds. A practical training method is to perform repeated short sprints of 5–8 seconds with full recovery, known as "repeated sprint ability" drills. The challenge for many fencers is that the phosphagen system does not improve substantially with low-intensity volume; it requires high-intensity, maximal-effort repetitions to stimulate adaptations in CP resynthesis rates.

Glycolytic pathway (or anaerobic lactic system) supplies ATP for efforts lasting from roughly ten seconds to two minutes. This system breaks down muscle glycogen into glucose, which is then metabolised to pyruvate and subsequently to lactate when oxygen delivery cannot meet demand. In a fencing bout, a series of rapid exchanges lasting 30–45 seconds, especially during a high-intensity rally, will heavily engage glycolysis. The accumulation of lactate and associated hydrogen ions contributes to the sensation of "burn." Training to improve glycolytic capacity includes interval sessions such as 4 × 2-minute bouts at 85–90 % of $\text{VO}_2 \text{ max}$ with 2-minute active recoveries. A notable challenge is that excessive reliance on glycolysis without adequate recovery can lead to premature fatigue and impaired decision-making.

$\text{VO}_2 \text{ max}$ represents the maximal rate at which an individual can uptake, transport, and utilise oxygen during intense exercise. It is a key indicator of aerobic fitness and is measured in millilitres of oxygen per kilogram of body weight per minute ($\text{ml}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$). For elite fencers, $\text{VO}_2 \text{ max}$ values typically range from 55 to 65 $\text{ml}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$, reflecting a well-developed cardiovascular system. Enhancing $\text{VO}_2 \text{ max}$ involves high-intensity interval training (HIIT) that pushes the athlete to 90–95 % of their maximal effort for short periods, interspersed with active recovery. A practical example is 5 × 3-minute bouts on a rowing ergometer at a power output that elicits a heart-rate near the athlete's predicted maximum, with 2-minute easy rowing

intervals. The primary challenge is ensuring that the high-intensity stimulus does not compromise the technical and tactical work crucial for fencing performance.

Anaerobic threshold (sometimes referred to as the lactate threshold) is the exercise intensity at which lactate begins to accumulate faster than it can be cleared from the bloodstream. This point typically corresponds to about 85 % of VO_2 max in trained athletes. In fencing, operating near the anaerobic threshold allows a fencer to execute rapid combinations while delaying the onset of fatigue. Training to raise the threshold involves sustained efforts just below the point of lactate accumulation, such as 20-minute tempo runs at a pace that feels “comfortably hard.” A practical application for a fencer could be a 15-minute continuous bout simulation on a fencing strip, maintaining a cadence that produces a heart-rate of 165 bpm, which roughly aligns with the individual’s lactate threshold. One challenge is the difficulty of precisely identifying the threshold without laboratory testing; field tests using perceived exertion scales can provide reasonable approximations but may lack accuracy.

Carbohydrate periodisation is the strategic manipulation of carbohydrate intake to match training intensity and competition demands. During high-intensity training blocks, a fencer may increase carbohydrate consumption to $6\text{--}8\text{ g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{day}^{-1}$ to replenish muscle glycogen stores and support glycolytic performance. Conversely, during lower-intensity phases or recovery weeks, carbohydrate intake can be reduced to $3\text{--}4\text{ g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{day}^{-1}$ to promote metabolic flexibility and enhance fat oxidation. A practical example: An athlete weighing 70 kg might consume 490 g of carbohydrate on a heavy-training day ($70\text{ kg} \times 7\text{ g}$) and 280 g on a light-training day ($70\text{ kg} \times 4\text{ g}$). The primary challenge lies in accurately timing carbohydrate intake around training sessions to avoid gastrointestinal distress while ensuring sufficient fuel for performance.

Glycogen loading (or carbohydrate loading) is a technique used to maximise muscle glycogen stores before a competition. The protocol typically involves a 3-day period of reduced training volume combined with a high-carbohydrate diet ($\approx 10\text{ g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{day}^{-1}$). For a 68-kg fencer, this equates to roughly 680 g of carbohydrate per day, achieved through meals rich in rice, pasta, fruit, and sport-specific energy gels. The benefit is an increased reserve of readily available glucose, which can delay the onset of fatigue during prolonged bouts or tournaments that require multiple matches in a single day. A challenge is that excessive carbohydrate intake can lead to bloating or altered blood-glucose responses, so careful monitoring of gastrointestinal comfort is essential.

Protein turnover refers to the continual process of muscle protein synthesis (MPS) and muscle protein breakdown (MPB). In fencing, where explosive movements and rapid changes of direction are frequent, maintaining a positive protein balance is crucial for recovery and adaptation. The recommended protein intake for a fencer engaged in regular training is $1.6\text{--}2.0\text{ g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{day}^{-1}$, spread across 4–5 meals to stimulate MPS throughout the day. For instance, a 75-kg athlete would aim for 120–150 g of protein daily, translating to approximately 30 g per meal if consuming five meals. Practical applications include consuming a high-quality protein source (e.g., Whey, soy, or lean meat) within 30 minutes post-training to capitalize on the post-exercise anabolic window. A common challenge is ensuring adequate protein intake without displacing carbohydrate calories needed for energy, particularly during periods of high training volume.

Micronutrient adequacy is essential for enzymatic reactions that underpin energy production. Iron, for example, is a component of hemoglobin and myoglobin, facilitating oxygen transport and storage. A deficiency can reduce VO_2 max and impair aerobic performance. Vitamin D influences muscle function and bone health, both critical for the high-impact movements in fencing. Practical application: Regular blood screening to monitor ferritin levels and vitamin D status, followed by dietary adjustments such as incorporating iron-rich foods (lean red meat, lentils) and vitamin-D-fortified products or supplements during months with limited sunlight. Challenges include the subtle nature of micronutrient deficiencies, which may manifest only as reduced training capacity or increased injury risk, making early detection vital.

Hydration status directly affects plasma volume, thermoregulation, and cognitive function. Even a 2% body-water loss can impair reaction time and decision-making—key components in fencing where split-second choices determine point outcomes. A practical hydration protocol involves consuming 5–7 $\text{ml}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ of fluid 2–3 hours before a bout, followed by 2–3 $\text{ml}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ every 20 minutes during competition. For a 68-kg fencer, this translates to approximately 340 ml pre-match and 140–200 ml during each 3-minute bout. Urine colour charts can serve as a simple field method to assess hydration, with a light-yellow colour indicating adequate status. Challenges arise in competitions held in hot or humid environments, where sweat rates increase dramatically, requiring individualized fluid replacement strategies that also consider electrolyte balance.

Electrolyte balance is crucial for maintaining neuromuscular excitability and preventing cramping. Sodium, potassium, calcium, and magnesium are the primary electrolytes lost through sweat. A practical approach is to consume a sports drink containing 20–30 $\text{mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ of sodium and 3–5 $\text{mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ of potassium during prolonged tournaments. For a match lasting 30 minutes with an estimated sweat loss of 0.8 L, this would provide roughly 16–24 mmol of sodium, helping to sustain plasma volume and nerve conduction. The challenge lies in customizing electrolyte intake to individual sweat composition, which can vary widely based on genetics, diet, and acclimatization.

Energy density describes the amount of energy (kilocalories) per gram of food. High-energy-density foods, such as nuts and dried fruit, provide substantial calories in small portions, useful for fencers who need to maintain weight while meeting high energy demands. Low-energy-density foods, like vegetables and broth-based soups, allow for higher volume intake without excessive caloric load, aiding in satiety and gastrointestinal comfort. A practical example is combining a banana (low-energy-density carbohydrate) with a handful of almonds (high-energy-density healthy fats) to achieve a balanced pre-match snack that supplies both quick glucose and sustained energy. The challenge is preventing over-reliance on high-energy-density foods, which can lead to unwanted weight gain if total caloric intake exceeds expenditure.

Glycemic index (GI) ranks carbohydrate foods based on their impact on post-prandial blood glucose. Low-GI foods (≤ 55) release glucose slowly, supporting prolonged energy availability, whereas high-GI foods (≥ 70) cause rapid spikes useful for immediate fuel. In fencing, a high-GI snack (e.g., A sports gel) taken 10–15 minutes before a bout can provide a quick surge of glucose to support the phosphagen and glycolytic

systems. Conversely, a low-GI meal (e.G., Oatmeal with berries) consumed 2–3 hours before competition helps sustain glycogen stores without causing insulin-mediated drops in blood glucose during the event. Practical application includes planning meal timing based on the competition schedule to align the glucose availability with the metabolic demands of each bout. A challenge is individual variability in glycemic response, necessitating personalized testing to fine-tune nutrition strategies.

Fat oxidation becomes a more prominent energy source as exercise duration lengthens and carbohydrate availability declines. Efficient fat metabolism spares glycogen, delaying fatigue during multiple-bout tournaments. Training adaptations that enhance fat oxidation include long, low-intensity sessions (e.G., 90-Minute steady-state runs at 55 % VO_2 max) and “fasted” training, where the athlete performs moderate-intensity work after an overnight fast. A practical example: A fencer might schedule a 60-minute cycling session at 45–50 % VO_2 max before breakfast to stimulate mitochondrial enzymes involved in β -oxidation. The challenge is balancing the benefits of increased fat utilization with the potential risk of reduced training intensity, which could impede improvements in speed and power.

Metabolic flexibility is the ability of the body to switch efficiently between carbohydrate and fat oxidation based on availability and demand. A fencer with high metabolic flexibility can rely on glycolysis for brief, high-intensity actions while seamlessly transitioning to oxidative pathways during lower-intensity periods. Strategies to improve flexibility include alternating training days focused on high-carbohydrate, high-intensity work with low-carbohydrate, moderate-intensity sessions, thereby training the muscles to adapt to varying substrate supplies. Practical application: A week could be structured with two “high-glycogen” days (e.G., Interval training with carbohydrate-rich meals) followed by two “low-glycogen” days (e.G., Steady-state cardio with reduced carbohydrate intake). A challenge is ensuring adequate recovery and preventing chronic energy deficits that could impair performance or increase injury risk.

Recovery kinetics describe the rate at which physiological variables return to baseline after exercise. Key markers include heart-rate recovery (HRR), lactate clearance, and phosphocreatine (PCr) resynthesis. Faster HRR (a drop of >50 bpm within the first minute post-exercise) is associated with superior autonomic balance and readiness for subsequent bouts. Lactate clearance is facilitated by active recovery, such as low-intensity jogging or light footwork drills, which maintain blood flow to metabolically active muscles. PCr resynthesis occurs optimally during passive rest periods of 3–5 minutes, emphasizing the importance of structured rest between attacks. Practical application: After a series of high-intensity fence exchanges, a fencer might perform 2 minutes of light footwork followed by a 3-minute seated rest to optimise both lactate removal and PCr recovery. The challenge is that tournament schedules often limit rest intervals, requiring athletes to develop rapid recovery strategies through both training and nutrition.

Heart-rate variability (HRV) is a non-invasive metric of autonomic nervous system balance, reflecting the variation in time intervals between heartbeats. Higher HRV generally indicates a well-recovered state and readiness for training, whereas reduced HRV may signal accumulated fatigue or stress. For fencers, daily HRV monitoring using a simple chest strap or fingertip sensor can guide training load decisions. For example, a 5 % drop in HRV compared to a personal baseline might prompt a lighter technique session

rather than a high-intensity interval workout. The challenge lies in interpreting HRV data within the context of other stressors, such as travel, academic commitments, or psychological pressure, which can all influence autonomic tone.

Periodisation is the systematic planning of training variables (intensity, volume, and specificity) over defined cycles to achieve peak performance at a target competition. In fencing, periodisation often follows macro-cycles (annual), meso-cycles (monthly), and micro-cycles (weekly). A typical macro-cycle may include a preparatory phase focusing on aerobic base, a competition phase emphasizing tactical and high-intensity work, and a transition phase for active recovery. Practical application: During the preparatory phase, a fencer might allocate 60 % of training time to aerobic conditioning, 30 % to strength and power, and 10 % to technical drills. As the competition phase approaches, the distribution shifts to 20 % aerobic, 50 % high-intensity interval work, and 30 % technical/tactical rehearsal. Challenges include maintaining motivation during lower-intensity phases and preventing overtraining during high-intensity blocks.

Energy balance is the relationship between energy intake (calories consumed) and energy expenditure (calories burned). A neutral energy balance supports weight maintenance, while a positive balance leads to weight gain and a negative balance induces weight loss. For fencers, maintaining an optimal body composition is critical for speed, agility, and endurance. Practical tools for monitoring energy balance include food diaries, mobile tracking apps, and periodic body-composition assessments (e.G., Skinfold or DXA scans). An example calculation: A fencer with a total daily energy expenditure (TDEE) of 2 800 kcal who consumes 2 500 kcal will experience a 300 kcal deficit, potentially resulting in a 0.3 Kg weight loss per week. Challenges include the accuracy of self-reported intake, the variability of training loads, and the psychological impact of strict dietary monitoring.

Macronutrient distribution refers to the proportion of calories derived from carbohydrates, proteins, and fats. A balanced distribution for a fencer often follows a 55–60 % carbohydrate, 20–25 % protein, and 15–20 % fat split, adjusted based on training phases and individual tolerance. For a 2 600 kcal diet, this translates to approximately 360 g of carbohydrate (4 kcal g^{-1}), 130 g of protein (4 kcal g^{-1}), and 70 g of fat (9 kcal g^{-1}). Practical application involves meal planning that incorporates a carbohydrate source (e.G., Whole-grain pasta), a high-quality protein (e.G., Grilled chicken), and a healthy fat (e.G., Olive oil) at each main meal. The challenge is ensuring that the macro split aligns with the timing of training sessions, as a high-carbohydrate meal too close to a bout may cause gastrointestinal discomfort, while insufficient carbohydrate can limit glycolytic output.

Timing of nutrient intake (also called nutrient periodisation) optimises performance by aligning food consumption with the metabolic demands of training and competition. Pre-exercise meals should be carbohydrate-rich, low in fibre, and consumed 2–3 hours before activity to allow gastric emptying. During exercise, easily digestible carbohydrates ($30\text{--}60 \text{ g h}^{-1}$) can be taken as gels or sports drinks, especially in tournaments with multiple bouts. Post-exercise nutrition focuses on a 3 : 1 Carbohydrate-to-protein ratio within the first 30 minutes to maximise glycogen restoration and MPS. For instance, a post-match shake containing 60 g of carbohydrate and 20 g of whey protein can effectively replenish energy stores. The

challenge is coordinating nutrient timing with competition schedules that may have unpredictable intervals between bouts, requiring flexible nutrition strategies.

Supplementation can provide targeted support for specific physiological processes. Common supplements for fencers include beta-alanine (to increase muscle carnosine and buffer hydrogen ions), creatine monohydrate (to augment phosphagen stores), and nitrate-rich beetroot juice (to enhance nitric-oxide production and improve blood flow). Dosage guidelines: Beta-alanine 3–6 g day⁻¹ split into 0.8-G doses to minimise paresthesia; creatine 0.03 G·kg⁻¹ day⁻¹ after an initial loading phase of 0.3 G·kg⁻¹ for 5–7 days; beetroot juice 300–500 ml taken 2–3 hours before competition. Practical application involves integrating these supplements into daily routines while monitoring for individual tolerance. Challenges include the risk of contamination in non-certified products, potential gastrointestinal upset, and the need to assess whether performance gains justify the cost and effort.

Thermoregulation is the body's ability to maintain core temperature within a narrow optimal range. During fencing, especially in outdoor venues or hot indoor arenas, excessive heat can impair neuromuscular function and decision-making. Strategies to support thermoregulation include pre-cooling (e.g., Cold-water immersion for 5–10 minutes), appropriate clothing layers, and hydration with electrolyte-rich fluids. Practical example: A fencer might wear a lightweight, moisture-wicking shirt and a breathable mask to enhance evaporative cooling while maintaining protection. The challenge is that excessive cooling can lead to muscle stiffness, while insufficient cooling may cause hyperthermia, necessitating a balanced approach tailored to environmental conditions.

Psychobiological fatigue encompasses mental and emotional components of fatigue, such as reduced motivation, increased perceived effort, and impaired concentration. In fencing, where rapid decision-making and anticipatory skills are vital, psychobiological fatigue can be as detrimental as physiological fatigue. Nutritional strategies to mitigate mental fatigue include adequate intake of omega-3 fatty acids, B-vitamins, and antioxidants (e.g., Vitamin C and polyphenols) that support neurotransmitter synthesis and reduce oxidative stress. Practical application: Incorporating fatty fish (salmon) twice per week, leafy greens rich in folate, and berries in post-training snacks can contribute to mental resilience. A key challenge is distinguishing between physiological and psychobiological fatigue, as both can present with similar symptoms, requiring comprehensive monitoring that includes mood questionnaires and cognitive testing.

Oxidative stress arises when the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) exceeds the capacity of antioxidant defenses. Intense fencing training can elevate ROS, potentially damaging cellular membranes and impairing recovery. Antioxidant nutrition, such as consuming foods high in vitamin E (nuts, seeds), vitamin C (citrus fruits), and polyphenols (green tea, dark chocolate), helps neutralise ROS. However, excessive antioxidant supplementation may blunt training adaptations by interfering with the signalling pathways that drive mitochondrial biogenesis. Practical guidance suggests focusing on whole-food sources rather than high-dose supplements, aiming for at least 90 mg of vitamin C and 15 mg of vitamin E per day. The challenge is achieving the right balance between protecting cells and preserving the oxidative signals necessary for training-induced improvements.

Blood glucose management is critical for sustaining energy during prolonged tournaments. Fluctuations in blood glucose can affect both physical output and cognitive performance. Strategies include consuming low-GI meals the night before competition, using moderate-GI snacks (e.G., A banana with a small amount of nut butter) 60 minutes before the first bout, and employing rapid-acting carbohydrate sources (e.G., Glucose tablets) between matches if blood glucose drops below $70 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{dL}^{-1}$. Practical monitoring can be performed with a finger-stick glucometer or continuous glucose monitor (CGM) for athletes with a history of hypoglycaemia. The challenge lies in individual variability in glucose response and the logistical constraints of testing during competition.

Fatigue index is a metric derived from repeated sprint tests that quantifies the rate of performance decline across successive efforts. In fencing, a lower fatigue index indicates better ability to sustain high-intensity actions throughout a bout. Testing protocols might involve 6×30 -second maximal sprints on a treadmill with 30-second passive recoveries, calculating the percentage drop from the first to the last sprint. Practical application includes using the fatigue index to tailor interval training intensity; athletes with a high fatigue index may benefit from longer recovery intervals or additional aerobic work to improve oxidative capacity. A challenge is the need for consistent testing conditions to ensure reliability of the metric over time.

Energy system integration refers to the coordinated contribution of phosphagen, glycolytic, and oxidative pathways during complex movements. In fencing, a lunge initiates with a rapid phosphagen burst, transitions to glycolysis for the continuation of the attack, and finally relies on oxidative metabolism during the recovery phase. Understanding this integration allows coaches to design drills that target each system while preserving the natural sequence of energy utilisation. For example, a "shadow-lunge" drill performed at 90 % intensity for 10 seconds, followed by a 20-second rest, emphasises phosphagen recovery, whereas a "continuous-exchange" drill lasting 2 minutes at 80 % intensity stresses glycolytic capacity and oxidative endurance. The challenge is ensuring that athletes do not develop a training bias toward one system at the expense of the others, which could lead to suboptimal performance during actual bouts.

Metabolic profiling involves assessing an athlete's substrate utilisation patterns through indirect calorimetry or blood-borne markers (e.G., Lactate, free fatty acids). For a fencer, metabolic profiling can reveal whether they predominantly rely on carbohydrates or fats during specific training intensities, informing personalised nutrition and training adjustments. Practical implementation could include a graded exercise test on a cycle ergometer with respiratory gas analysis, yielding values such as respiratory exchange ratio (RER) at various workloads. An RER of 0.85 At 70 % VO_2 max suggests mixed substrate use, whereas an RER of 0.95 At the same intensity indicates a carbohydrate-dominant reliance. Challenges include the cost and accessibility of metabolic testing equipment, as well as the need for expertise to interpret data accurately.

Training load monitoring integrates subjective and objective measures to quantify the stress imposed by training. Tools include session rating of perceived exertion (sRPE), heart-rate monitoring, GPS tracking (for distance and speed), and biochemical markers such as creatine kinase (CK) or cortisol. In fencing, sRPE combined with heart-rate data can provide a comprehensive picture of both the physiological and psychological demands of a drill. For instance, a high-intensity footwork drill might register a heart-rate of

175 bpm and an sRPE of 8 on a 10-point scale, indicating a substantial load. Practical application involves adjusting subsequent training sessions based on cumulative load to prevent overreaching. A major challenge is the variability in individual perception of effort, which can be influenced by factors like sleep quality or stress, requiring regular calibration of the monitoring system.

Periodised carbohydrate (CHO) cycling is a nuanced form of macronutrient periodisation where carbohydrate intake is deliberately varied across training days to optimise both glycolytic performance and fat oxidation. A typical weekly pattern may involve “high-CHO” days ($\approx 7\text{--}8\text{ g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$) aligned with intense interval or sparring sessions, “moderate-CHO” days ($\approx 5\text{ g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$) for technical work, and “low-CHO” days ($\approx 3\text{--}4\text{ g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$) for recovery or low-intensity cardio. Practical implementation requires meal planning that includes carbohydrate-rich foods (e.g., Rice, potatoes) on high-CHO days and reduces these sources on low-CHO days while compensating with increased vegetable intake to maintain micronutrient adequacy. Challenges include ensuring adequate energy availability on low-CHO days to prevent training quality decline and managing the psychological impact of reduced carbohydrate intake.

Energy substrate availability during a bout is dictated by the balance between glycogen stores, blood glucose, and intramuscular triglycerides. Exhaustion of glycogen can force a shift toward greater reliance on fatty acids, which may reduce the capacity for high-intensity actions. Monitoring substrate availability can be achieved indirectly through performance metrics (e.g., A noticeable drop in attack speed after several bouts) or directly via muscle biopsies (though invasive). Practical strategies to preserve substrate availability include strategic carbohydrate ingestion before and between matches, as well as ensuring adequate rest to facilitate glycogen resynthesis. A challenge is the limited time between bouts in tournament settings, which may restrict the amount of carbohydrate that can be ingested without causing gastrointestinal distress.

Recovery nutrition focuses on replenishing depleted glycogen, repairing muscle damage, and re-hydrating after training or competition. The optimal post-exercise window is often cited as the first 30 minutes, during which insulin sensitivity is heightened. A practical recovery meal might consist of a 1:1 Carbohydrate-to-protein ratio smoothie containing 40 g of maltodextrin, 20 g of whey protein, 200 ml of low-fat milk, and a pinch of salt for electrolytes. Adding a source of antioxidants, such as a handful of berries, can further support recovery. The challenge lies in the logistical constraints of tournament environments, where access to suitable recovery foods may be limited, requiring athletes to carry portable options (e.g., Ready-to-drink recovery shakes).

Muscle glycogen super-compensation is the phenomenon where glycogen stores exceed normal baseline levels following a period of carbohydrate loading combined with a taper. This state can enhance endurance performance by providing a larger energy reservoir. For a fencer preparing for a multi-day championship, a 3-day carbohydrate-loading protocol ($\approx 9\text{--}10\text{ g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$) combined with reduced training volume can induce super-compensation. Practical example: A 68-kg athlete would aim for 680–680 g of carbohydrate per day, sourced from high-glycemic foods such as white rice, honey, and sports beverages. The challenge is ensuring that the increased carbohydrate intake does not lead to excess gastrointestinal volume, which could affect comfort and mobility during bouts.

Acid-base balance is crucial for maintaining optimal muscle contractility. High-intensity fencing actions generate hydrogen ions, lowering intracellular pH and contributing to fatigue. Buffering strategies include ingesting sodium bicarbonate ($0.3 \text{ g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$) 60–90 minutes before competition, which can raise blood pH and delay the onset of acidosis. Practical considerations involve trialing the supplement during training to assess tolerance, as some athletes experience gastrointestinal upset. A challenge is that the effectiveness of bicarbonate is highly individual, and the timing of ingestion must be precise to align with the bout schedule.

Neuromuscular efficiency denotes the ability of the nervous system to recruit motor units effectively, producing maximal force with minimal energy expenditure. In fencing, high neuromuscular efficiency enables rapid, precise blade work and swift footwork without unnecessary muscular strain. Training methods to improve efficiency include plyometric drills (e.G., Bounding, depth jumps), ballistic resistance training (e.G., Medicine-ball throws), and skill-specific repetitions performed at high speed. Practical application: Incorporating 3 sets of 8 depth jumps with 2 minutes rest between sets, followed by immediate technical sparring to translate the neuromuscular gains into sport-specific movements. The challenge is balancing the high-impact nature of plyometric work with the risk of overuse injuries, especially in the lower limbs.

Hormonal responses to training provide insight into the balance between anabolic and catabolic processes. Key hormones include testosterone, cortisol, and insulin-like growth factor-1 (IGF-1). Elevated cortisol relative to testosterone may indicate excessive stress and insufficient recovery. Salivary hormone testing can be employed to monitor these ratios throughout a training block. Practical implications: If a fencer exhibits a consistently high cortisol-to-testosterone ratio, the coach may reduce training volume, increase recovery modalities, or adjust nutrition (e.G., Increasing carbohydrate intake) to mitigate stress. Challenges include the variability of hormonal fluctuations due to factors such as sleep, nutrition, and psychological stress, requiring multiple sampling points for reliable interpretation.

Energy cost of movement quantifies the amount of metabolic energy expended during specific fencing actions. For instance, a forward lunge may require approximately 4 kcal per repetition for an average-sized athlete, whereas a rapid retreat step may cost 2 kcal. Understanding these costs allows coaches to design conditioning drills that match the energetic demands of competition. A practical example: A conditioning circuit that includes 20 lunges, 30 retreat steps, and 10 defensive parries, with rest intervals calibrated to the cumulative energy cost (e.G., 5 Minutes of active recovery). The challenge is that individual technique variations can significantly alter the energy cost, necessitating personalized assessments.

Metabolic acidosis occurs when the buffering capacity of the blood is overwhelmed by the accumulation of lactate and hydrogen ions during high-intensity efforts. In fencing, repeated high-speed attacks can precipitate metabolic acidosis, leading to a decline in explosive power. Strategies to manage acidosis include active recovery (light footwork or shadow fencing) to promote lactate clearance, and nutritional buffering (e.G., Beta-alanine supplementation to increase muscle carnosine). Practical application: A fencer may perform 2 minutes of low-intensity footwork between bouts, facilitating the removal of metabolic by-products. The challenge lies in the limited inter-bout recovery time during tournaments, which may not

allow sufficient clearance, highlighting the importance of pre-competition conditioning to raise buffering capacity.

Fuel utilisation efficiency reflects how effectively the body converts ingested energy into mechanical work. Higher efficiency means less energy is wasted as heat, allowing the athlete to sustain performance longer. Factors influencing efficiency include training status, technique optimisation, and appropriate nutrition. For example, a fencer who refines their footwork to minimise unnecessary movement can reduce the metabolic cost of each step, improving overall efficiency. Practical methods to assess efficiency include measuring oxygen consumption during a standardized footwork drill and calculating the ratio of work output to oxygen uptake. Challenges involve isolating technique improvements from physiological adaptations, as both contribute to observed changes in efficiency.

Oxidative phosphorylation is the final stage of aerobic metabolism where electrons from NADH and FADH₂ travel through the electron transport chain, generating the majority of ATP. The capacity for oxidative phosphorylation determines an athlete's endurance potential. Endurance training, such as long-duration low-intensity runs or swims, stimulates mitochondrial biogenesis, enhancing this pathway. Practical application: A fencer may incorporate a weekly 90-minute steady-state swim at 60% VO₂ max to promote mitochondrial adaptations without excessive joint stress. A major challenge is ensuring that the volume of oxidative training does not interfere with the development of speed and power, which are also vital for fencing success.

Blood lactate kinetics describe the rate of lactate appearance and clearance during and after exercise. A rapid rise in lactate during high-intensity intervals, followed by a swift decline during active recovery, indicates an efficient lactate shuttle system. Monitoring lactate kinetics can be performed using a portable lactate analyzer during training. For instance, a fencer might record a lactate level of 8 mmol·L⁻¹ after a 30-second maximal lunge series, which then drops to 4 mmol·L⁻¹ after a 2-minute active recovery. Practical implications include adjusting recovery intervals to optimise lactate clearance, thereby maintaining high-quality performance across successive bouts. The challenge is that repeated lactate testing can be invasive and may disrupt training flow, so coaches must balance data collection with training continuity.

Substrate competition refers to the metabolic phenomenon where the utilization of one fuel source inhibits the oxidation of another. High carbohydrate availability can suppress fat oxidation, a concept known as the "glucose-fatty acid cycle." In fencing, strategic carbohydrate timing can be used to manipulate substrate competition: Consuming carbohydrates before a high-intensity bout ensures glycolytic dominance, while limiting carbs during low-intensity periods encourages fat oxidation. Practical example: A fencer may fast for 12 hours before a long-duration tournament day, allowing the body to rely more on fat stores during early, low-intensity matches, then ingest a carbohydrate snack before the critical semifinal to boost glycolytic capacity. The challenge is managing the delicate balance between maintaining energy for performance and avoiding metabolic inflexibility.

Energy system specificity emphasizes that training adaptations are specific to the metabolic pathways

predominantly used during the activity. For fencing, this means that both high-intensity, short-duration drills (targeting the phosphagen system) and longer, moderate-intensity bouts (targeting glycolytic and oxidative systems) are necessary. Designing a training week that includes at least two sessions focused on each system ensures comprehensive development. Practical application: Monday – sprint interval training; Wednesday – technical sparring with moderate intensity; Friday – long-duration footwork drills at 65% VO_2 max. Challenges involve scheduling constraints, especially for athletes balancing academic commitments, and ensuring adequate recovery between high-intensity sessions.

Metabolic strain quantifies the cumulative stress placed on energy pathways during a training session. It can be estimated by combining metrics such as heart-rate reserve, lactate concentration, and perceived exertion. For example, a session with an average heart-rate at 85% of HRmax, lactate levels of $6 \text{ mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, and an sRPE of 7 would represent a high metabolic strain. Monitoring metabolic strain helps prevent overtraining by adjusting volume or intensity when strain exceeds predetermined thresholds. Practical tools include using wearable heart-rate monitors paired with training logs to calculate a composite strain score. The challenge is that individual tolerance to metabolic strain varies, requiring personalised benchmarks.