

1 **The Physical Characteristics Underpinning Performance of Wheelchair Fencing Athletes: A**
2 **Delphi Study of Paralympic Coaches**

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26 **Abstract**

27 Wheelchair Fencing (WF) is a Paralympic sport which is practiced by athletes with physical disabilities and is
28 classified into three categories according to the degree of activity limitation the impairment causes in the sport.
29 All Paralympic sports are requested to develop their own evidence-based classification system to enhance the
30 confidence in the classification process however, this is yet to be achieved in WF. Research within WF is scarce
31 therefore, the aim of this study was to reach expert consensus on the physical characteristics that underpin
32 performance of athletes competing in the sport as this is known as one of the initial steps required to achieve an
33 evidence-based classification system. Sixteen Paralympic WF coaches were invited to take part in a 3-round
34 Delphi study, with experts drawing consensus on qualities of speed, strength, power, flexibility and motor control
35 of the trunk and fencing arm being associated with increased athletic success. The required qualities of the non-
36 fencing arm led to diverging opinions across the expert panel. This study provides clear guidance of the physical
37 qualities to be developed to maximise athletic performance while also providing the initial framework to guide
38 future WF classification research.

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51 **Key words:** Wheelchair fencing, Classification, Physical, Attributes, Performance

52 **1 Introduction**

53 Wheelchair fencing (WF) is considered one of the oldest sport disciplines practiced by athletes with a disability
54 [1]. The sport is a derivative of able-bodied fencing, using identical weapons (foil, epee and sabre), tactics, and
55 rules [2, 3]. A major distinction is that athletes are competing seated in a sport-specific wheelchair fixed in place
56 to provide stability while also maximizing upper body movement [4]. To participate in WF, athletes must display
57 a permanent physical disability falling under one or more of the following impairment types; hypertonia, ataxia,
58 athetosis, limb deficiency, impaired muscle power, and impaired range of movement [5].

59 An integral part of Paralympic sports is the process of classification [6]. The purpose of classification is to place
60 athletes into different categories to promote fair competition and therefore enhance participation in sport [7]. As
61 a result of classification, all athletes competing in a given category should display impairments causing
62 approximately the same amount of disadvantage in the sport [6]. In WF, the current classification system is known
63 as a functional system, where an emphasis is placed on the impact each impairment could have on sport
64 performance [3]. During this process, athletes undergo a range of assessments (e.g. bench test) determining the
65 functional status of athletes, where scores are aggregated leading to a class allocation into either A, B or C
66 categories. The international governing body of the sport, the International Wheelchair & Amputee Sports
67 Federation (IWAS) [5], defines of the three categories as follows: Category A athletes are the most functional
68 and demonstrate good sitting balance and good fencing arm function (e.g. amputees or spinal cord injuries below
69 T10). Category B athletes typically demonstrate fair sitting balance and good arm function (e.g. paraplegics with
70 spinal lesions level T9 – 10). Finally, category C athletes are the most impaired with no sitting balance and affected
71 function of the fencing arm (e.g. tetraplegics with spinal lesions level C5 – C8).

72 To date, numerous Paralympic sports including WF rely on subjectively aggregating results from a range of
73 assessments to classify athletes [8]. Such systems have previously been described in the literature as lacking
74 transparency and can also be contested, which in turn poses a significant threat to Paralympic sports and as a result
75 need reconsidering [7, 9]. For this reason, in 2007 the International Paralympic Committee (IPC) released the IPC
76 classification code requesting all Paralympic sports to develop their own evidence-based classification system
77 [10]. This system was intended to be based on scientific evidence and therefore enhance confidence in the
78 classification process [8]. Since the publication of the classification code, emerging research describing the
79 required steps to achieve such a system have been published [6, 7, 9, 11]. One of the critical tasks required in
80 developing an evidence-based classification system, is to identify the physical factors that determine overall

81 performance [6]. To date, the research in WF is scarce and limited to exploring the physiological demand of the
82 sport [12, 13], injury epidemiology [14] and kinematic and electromyography analysis of the lunge attack [2–4].
83 While these studies provide insightful and valuable information, they are not sufficient to understand which
84 physical attributes underpin performance. To overcome the paucity of literature and to better understand
85 performance, qualitative research involving expert coaches such as Delphi studies should be undertaken [6].

86 Therefore, the aim of this study is to use the Delphi method to reach expert consensus on the physical attributes
87 underpinning the performance of category A athletes in WF. Category A athletes were the focus of this research
88 due to their high functional abilities. It can be assumed that if an attribute is deemed as essential to enhance
89 performance within a highly functional athlete, those that do not possess these attributes or experience reduced
90 abilities due to the impairment type, will therefore be at a competitive disadvantage. The information provided by
91 this study may provide further insight into the sport and therefore guide the research community in designing
92 alternative measures of impairment which could help assess its relative contribution to sporting performance.
93 Whilst the primary focus of this research is classification related, the information presented in this study can aid
94 coaches and sports scientists better understand performance in WF.

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96 **2 Methods**

97 A Delphi study provides a structured method to systematically consult a panel of experts aiming to achieve
98 consensus on a given subject [15, 16]. In this study, a three-round Delphi technique was employed with
99 questionnaires administrated through Qualtrics (Qualtrics Research Suite, Qualtrics, Provo, Utah, USA). The
100 scope of the current study focused on a specific subject matter. The methodological approach of this study was
101 guided by the work of McCormack et al [17] and Zambaldi, Beasley & Rushton [18] who also applied a focused
102 approach to a specific subject matter using the Delphi method. This study was approved by a Middlesex University
103 Research Ethics Committee (UK).

104 **2.1 Participants**

105 A key challenge when conducting a Delphi study is the identification of appropriate experts [19]. In this study,
106 expert WF coaches with international experience were utilised, however, all coaches had to also demonstrate
107 sufficient English language proficiency in order to partake. In an attempt to sample the entire population of eligible
108 Paralympic WF coaches and to remove any bias throughout the recruitment process, IWAS communicated with

109 each of the member federations, inviting eligible coaches to voluntarily participate in the current study. All
 110 participants, were provided with information relating to the study aims, procedures and the link to the
 111 questionnaire and online consent form, via their respective federation. Coaches that provided consent were then
 112 taken to the first stage of this Delphi study. A total of 16 participants (panellists) consented to take part in this
 113 study (Table 1) including international coaches from 3 different continents; the majority of the panel was
 114 comprised of male coaches. Fifty percent of coaches had over 5 years of experience coaching WF at international
 115 level. A majority of the panellist coached more than one sword with a higher number (63%) coaching epee.

116 Table 1: Demographic information of panellists

	N (%)
Sex	
Male	14 (88)
Female	2 (13)
Continent	
Western Europe	11 (69)
North America	0 (0)
Australasia	0 (0)
South America	2 (13)
Eastern Europe	3 (19)
Africa	0 (0)
Asia	0 (0)
Years of experience as an international coach	
0-5	8 (50)
6-10	5 (31)
11-15	1 (6)
>15	2 (13)
Weapon coached *	
Foil	5 (31)
Epee	10 (63)
Sabre	8 (50)

117 * More than 1 answer was possible.

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119 2.2 Procedure

120 A Delphi process was undertaken over the course of six months and consensus was mainly reached after 3 rounds.
 121 The questionnaire for the first round remained open for six weeks following the initial email sent to the federations.
 122 Four weeks were then provided to coaches upon reception of the questionnaire for round 2 and 3. An email
 123 reminder was sent to non-responders for round 2 and 3, one week prior to the closing date. Non-responders in
 124 round 2 were still invited to partake in the subsequent round. The Delphi method defines consensus on the basis
 125 of a chosen proportion of the panel agreeing on a given statement [20]. For the purpose of this study, a minimum

126 agreement threshold of 80% was decided amongst the research team prior to the start of the study, which is
127 considered as a high agreement level [20].

128 2.2.1 Round 1

129 Round one included a total of five questions. Four questions were closed requesting demographic and coaching
130 related information. The fifth question was an open-ended question, which asked for up to 8 physical attributes
131 desired to succeed as a category A wheelchair fencer at international level. The request was “Please list a
132 maximum of eight physical attributes that in your view are most important to athletic success for category A
133 athletes in wheelchair fencing. Please write a sentence on why you think these are important to athletic success”.

134 2.2.2 Round 2

135 Round 2 started by introducing the panellists with a list of all physical attributes that were stated in the previous
136 round. Panellists were then invited to share their view on the importance of each of the physical qualities identified
137 using a 2-point modified Likert Scale (Agree or Disagree), following similar research by Dyer et al [21] who
138 identified that respondents typically used the agree and disagree options. A neutral third choice was deliberately
139 omitted to direct respondents to a clear opinionated decision [21]. The aim of this research was not to establish
140 the relative contribution of each attribute based on the panel’s view, but instead to identify the possible qualities
141 associated with performance. Due to this, a 2-point Likert Scale was deemed appropriate by the research team. To
142 prevent any potential misinterpretation and promote consistency across the panel, some key terms relating to
143 physical qualities identified were defined by the research team (Table 2). Under each question, a comments section
144 was also available for panellists to use it if they had any potential feedback or views.

145 Table 2: Definitions of physical attributes

Attribute	Definition
Speed	How quickly the athlete or the weapon moves
Reaction Time	The period of time taken for an athlete to respond to a stimulus
Strength	The capacity of an athlete to generate a large amount of force
Power	The ability to exert a large amount of force quickly
Flexibility	The ability to use the full range of movement available at a joint
Stability and Motor Control	The ability to minimise unwanted body movements and execute fine motor skills (precise and accurate motor control)
Agility	The ability to rapidly change body position and or speed in response to a stimulus

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148 **2.2.3 Round 3**

149 Round 3 started with a summary of the responses collected from the previous round and questions that had reached
150 consensus were removed from this round. Any question not having reached consensus was resubmitted or
151 rephrased based on the feedback received, and again graded using the same 2-point Likert Scale. The aim of this
152 round was to invite panellists to consider their answer in relation to the group answer and decide whether they
153 wanted to reconsider their response.

154 **2.3 Data Analysis**

155 Data from round 1 were downloaded from Qualtrics to MS Excel. Demographic and coaching related questions
156 were analysed using descriptive statistics (frequency and percentages). The responses of the open-ended questions
157 were thematically analysed by two trained members of the research team, using the six-step procedure of Braun
158 and Clarke [22]. To reduce categorisation bias, the researchers independently analysed the data prior to collating
159 their findings and agreeing on the final themes [18]. Data from rounds 2 and 3 were also downloaded from
160 Qualtrics to MS Excel and analysed using descriptive statistics, displaying the percentage of agreement across
161 panellists.

162 **3 Results**

163 **3.1 Round 1**

164 Thirty physical attributes were reported by the panel following round 1. Following the coding conducted by the
165 two researchers, responses were ordered into eight themes including: speed, strength, flexibility, stability and
166 motor control, agility, fitness, and anthropometry (Table 3). Overall speed (75%), ability to generate side to side
167 movements (56%), overall flexibility (50%), and overall stability and control (50%), were amongst the qualities
168 most frequently reported.

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174 Table 3: Reported physical qualities (frequency of selection and expressed as a percentage) organised in themes.

Theme		Attribute	Frequency	Percentage
Speed	1	Overall	12	75%
	2	Arm Speed	3	19%
	3	Hand Speed	3	19%
	4	Reaction Time	3	19%
Strength	5	Overall Strength	3	19%
	6	Arm Strength	3	19%
	7	Arm Power	3	19%
	8	Overall Power	2	13%
	9	Non-fencing Hand Grip Strength	1	6%
	10	Both Hand Grip Strength	1	6%
	11	Fencing Arm Grip Strength	1	6%
	12	Hip Strength	1	6%
Flexibility	13	Lower Limb Strength	1	6%
	14	Overall Flexibility	8	50%
	15	Trunk Side to Side Flexibility	4	25%
	16	Arm Flexibility	2	13%
	17	Torso Rotational Flexibility	1	6%
Stability and Motor Control	18	Hip Flexibility	1	6%
	19	Overall Stability and Control	8	50%
	20	Trunk Stability	3	19%
	21	Arm Control (shoulder and elbow)	3	19%
	22	Wrist Control	1	6%
	23	Hand-Eye Coordination	2	13%
	24	Striking Precision	5	31%
Agility	25	Side to Side Movement	9	56%
	26	Overall Agility	2	13%
Fitness	27	Stamina	5	31%
Anthropometry	28	Reach	5	31%
	29	Size/Target Area	2	13%
	30	Seated Height	1	6%

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176 3.2 Round 2

177 Fifteen participants (94%) participated in round 2. A total of 38 questions were devised for this round in line with
 178 the answers provided in round 1 (Table 4). In WF, function of body parts differ (e.g. fencing hand and non-fencing
 179 hand) and therefore questions targeting specific joints and or limbs were devised to better capture the coaches’
 180 views on their specific role and contribution to sport performance. As part of this round, one panellist only
 181 completed the first fifteen questions and the answers provided were included in the analysis. Twenty-four of the
 182 qualities reached consensus. On completion of this round, comments were made by coaches, with one highlighting
 183 that the ability to change rhythm may have been overlooked; it was thus added as part of the third round.

184 3.3 Round 3

185 Thirteen participants (81%) contributed to round 3. Following round 3, an additional four qualities reached
 186 consensus making a total of twenty-eight qualities reaching consensus and eleven attributes remaining having not
 187 reached consensus across the expert panel (Table 4).

188 Table 4: Level of agreement (percentage) of panellists for each attribute across round 2 and 3, where a minimum
 189 agreement threshold of 80% was used to archive consensus.

Theme	Importance of Attribute	Round 2		Round 3	
		Agreement	Disagreement	Agreement	Disagreement
Speed	Overall Speed	100%	0%		
	Fast Arm Speed (fencing arm)	100%	0%		
	Fast Arm Speed (non-fencing arm)	80%	20%		
	Fast Hand Speed	100%	0%		
	Quick Reaction Time	80%	20%		
Strength	High Level of Trunk Strength	93%	7%		
	High Level of Arm Strength (fencing arm)	67%	33%	85%	15%
	High Level of Arm Strength (non-fencing arm)	67%	33%	69%	31%
	High Level of Grip Strength (fencing arm)	47%	53%	54%	46%
	High Level of Grip Strength (non-fencing arm)	67%	33%	62%	38%
	High Level of Hip Strength	80%	20%		
	High Level of Lower Limb Strength	60%	40%	69%	31%
	High Level of Arm Power (fencing arm)	80%	20%		
	High Level of Arm Power (non-fencing arm)	73%	27%	77%	23%
	High Level of Overall Power	73%	27%	85%	15%
Flexibility	Side to Side Flexibility	100%	0%		
	Trunk Rotational Flexibility	79%	21%	85%	15%
	Shoulder Flexibility (fencing arm)	100%	0%		
	Shoulder Flexibility (non-fencing arm)	93%	7%		
	Elbow Flexibility (fencing arm)	93%	7%		
	Elbow Flexibility (non-fencing arm)	86%	14%		
	Wrist Flexibility (fencing arm)	93%	7%		
	Wrist Flexibility (non-fencing arm)	79%	21%	54%	46%
Stability and Motor Control	Hip Flexibility	86%	14%		
	Trunk Stability	100%	0%		
	Arm Motor Control (fencing arm)	100%	0%		
	Arm Motor Control (non-fencing arm)	79%	21%	62%	38%
	Wrist Motor Control (fencing arm)	100%	0%		
	Wrist Motor Control (non-fencing arm)	64%	36%	54%	46%
	Hand Eye Coordination	100%	0%		
Agility	Striking Precision	100%	0%		
	Side to Side Agility	86%	14%		
	Overall Agility	86%	14%		
	Ability to change rhythm			100%	0%

Fitness	Repeated High Intensity Lunges	93%	7%		
	Sustain Effort for Entire Competition	100%	0%		
Anthropometry	Greater Reach	71%	29%	77%	23%
	Larger Body Mass	21%	79%	31%	69%
	Greater Seated Height	71%	29%	69%	31%

19 Attributes not having reached consensus after round 3

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192 **4 Discussion**

193 This Delphi study is the first to explore coaches' expert views on the physical qualities which underpin the
 194 performance of category A athletes in the sport of WF. The wide range of qualities shared by coaches demonstrate
 195 that athletes have to develop a high number of qualities to perform at the highest level in WF. Due to the limited
 196 primary research conducted within WF, additional evidence derived from empirically similar sports will be used
 197 whenever necessary to compare and contrast the views of the expert panel.

198 **4.1 Overall Speed, Agility and Reaction Time**

199 The ability to generate high overall movement speed was considered as an essential attribute by all participants.
 200 WF can be considered as an open skilled combat sport whereby greater attacking speed provides less time for an
 201 opponent to react and in turn increases the chance of success [23]. Consistent with the participant's view, previous
 202 research identified that speed of attacks and change of direction speed were consistently greater in elite fencers
 203 when compared to non-expert fencers [24, 25].

204 Reacting quickly to an opponent's movement was also an attribute reaching consensus across the panel with 80%
 205 agreement. Due to the open skilled nature of WF, athletes must rely on perceptual and psychomotor skills [2] to
 206 determine the opponent's next action [26]. The success of the athlete's defence will therefore rely on how quickly
 207 and accurately they respond to the opponent's attack [27]. Consistent with the coaches' view, Milic et al [28]
 208 identified that experienced able-bodied fencers were able to react quicker to a sport specific stimuli but also
 209 displayed superior ability to select an adequate physical response when compared to beginners.

210 Side to side movements as well as overall agility were attributes that were also considered as important by the
 211 panel, by reaching an 86% agreement. To date, no time motion characteristics have been undertaken in the sport
 212 of WF, however, it can be suggested that athletes engage in successive attacking and defensive sequences
 213 requiring high levels of agility as observed in their counterpart able-bodied fencers [29]. In fact, in able-bodied
 214 fencing, agility has also been identified as a fundamental skill required by athletes [29]. Agility would allow

215 athletes to cope with the opponent's attacks by quickly moving away and changing body positioning to
216 accommodate for a potential counterattack. The need to quickly change body positioning when reacting to an
217 opponent's movement is further evidenced by all coaches agreeing that changing rhythm was an important
218 attribute contributing to performance in WF.

219 **4.2 Fencing Arm and Wrist Speed**

220 All participants unanimously agreed on the prevalence of a fast fencing arm (shoulder and elbow) and hand (wrist)
221 speed. To score in WF, athletes must touch their opponent with the weapon on predefined body parts (weapon
222 specific target zones). The hand-arm unit holding the weapon will therefore play an important role in achieving
223 the task. Its role is even more important given that during bouts, athletes are seated thus limiting spatial
224 displacement and disrupting the normal sequence of the kinetic chain [3]. Therefore, the ability of the fencing
225 hand-arm unit to produce accurate and high movement speed appears crucial. In line with this, previous research
226 demonstrated that able-bodied fencers displayed 1.5 times faster peak weapon velocity than wheelchair fencers.
227 Wheelchair fencers however, displayed considerably greater shoulder flexion peak angular velocity ($1065.7^\circ/\text{s}$),
228 when compared to their counterpart able-bodied fencers ($430.3\text{-}655.1^\circ/\text{s}$), potentially compensating for the
229 reduced spatial displacement possible [3]. This may also serve to support the coaches' view of the need to generate
230 high speed from the fencing hand-arm unit.

231 **4.3 Fencing Arm and Wrist Strength**

232 Panellists reached consensus regarding the importance of strength (85%) and power (80%) qualities of the fencing
233 arm (shoulder and elbow). Considering the need for high movement speed, the mechanisms facilitating speed
234 would therefore play an essential role in improving performance of wheelchair fencers. To date, no kinetic analysis
235 linking force to performance in WF has been undertaken. However, the importance of strength on movement
236 velocity can be explained by the impulse momentum relationship (Newton's second law of motion) [30]. If an
237 increasing force is exerted on a constant mass (weapon and athlete), a proportional increase in change of
238 momentum will occur, which will result in higher movement velocity and thus quicker movement time [30].

239 Interestingly, diverging opinions across the panel were observed relating to grip strength of the fencing arm, where
240 panellists were unable to reach consensus across round 2 and 3. Previous studies observed weak muscular activity
241 of the wrist flexors and extensors when wheelchair fencers completed a lunge [3]. These findings would support
242 the low contribution of the wrist to movement speed. Comments provided by coaches across rounds may have led
243 to believe that diverging opinions may possibly be explained by different coaching styles and techniques used by

244 coaches. While certain techniques such as the lunge may require little strength from the wrist muscles, other
245 techniques such as the *'flick'* may require a higher contribution of the wrist muscles in order to accelerate the wrist
246 and thus the sword.

247 **4.4 Fencing Arm and Wrist Flexibility and Motor Control**

248 Flexibility and motor control of the fencing arm and wrist reached consensus with a high level of agreement across
249 the expert panel ranging from 93% to 100% agreement. Three of the six impairment types eligible to WF,
250 including hypertonia, ataxia and athetosis, present athletes with reduced flexibility and/or impaired motor
251 coordination [31]. Therefore, their ability to execute skilled movement fluidly, rapidly, and accurately, is reduced
252 [31]. During a kinematic analysis of the lunge in category A wheelchair fencers, Chung [3] observed large angular
253 displacements of the fencing arm and joint angles proportionally increased as lunge distances increased. In
254 addition to this, moderate to high cross correlation coefficients between joints of the fencing arm were observed
255 demonstrating the importance the muscles facilitating these movements to act in a coordinated manner [3].
256 Consistent with the coaches' view, flexibility and coordination of the fencing arm and wrist appears essential to
257 fencing performance. The optimal interaction of flexibility and motor control would also allow fencers to achieve
258 striking precision, which was another important attribute agreed by all participants.

259 **4.5 Trunk Strength and Stability and Hip Strength and Flexibility**

260 All coaches agreed that trunk strength and stability was an essential quality to assist WF performance. In addition
261 to this, hip strength also reached consensus across the panellists with 80% agreement. Trunk and hip muscles are
262 considered responsible for postural stability [32]. These muscles are at the core of the current classification system
263 and can dictate which category athletes are allocated to. Indeed, Category A athletes typically display good sitting
264 balance, while athletes from category B have fair sitting balance due to reduced trunk and hip function (e.g. spinal
265 cord injury T1-T9) [5]. When attempting to score in WF, athletes have to extend the arm as well as lean towards
266 the opponents if necessary. A pool of research has provided evidence that trunk control is an important component
267 to controlling arm movement during reaching tasks when in a seated position, in an able-bodied population [33-
268 35]. In line with this, Borysiuk et al [2] identified an anticipatory activity of the external abdominal oblique
269 muscles prior to the initiation of the reaching task during the lunge in wheelchair fencers. Further evidence
270 supporting the coaches' view is provided by Chung [3] who identified a reduction of performance when lunging
271 distances increased in a population of wheelchair athletes with impaired trunk function when compared to athletes
272 with good trunk function. While hip strength was highlighted as an important attribute, hip flexibility was also

273 agreed as an important attribute. It can be speculated that optimal hip mobility will facilitate side to side movement
274 observed during fencing; its role may be increasingly important at further lunging distances.

275 **4.6 Lower Limb Strength**

276 Lower limb strength did not reach consensus across the panel across round 2 and 3 with 60% and 69% agreement
277 respectively. The role of the lower limb in WF remains unexplored with no research to date investigated its
278 contribution to performance. Comments provided by coaches across rounds revealed that some coaches believe
279 that lower limb muscles when in contact with the chair may contribute to movement speed as force can be exerted
280 against the metal frame of the wheelchair providing foot support. Other coaches thought that lower limb
281 contribution may be negated due to the fact athletes are competing seated. Further research is needed to fully
282 understand the role of the lower limbs in WF.

283 **4.7 Role of the Non-Fencing Arm and wrist**

284 Consistently throughout this Delphi study, the role and required qualities of the non-fencing arm and wrist lead
285 to diverging opinions across the expert panel. Qualities of strength, power, flexibility and motor control failed to
286 reach consensus. The sport specific wheelchair used by fencers are equipped with supporting bars on the side of
287 the non-fencing arm. Athletes may wish to use the bar to help maintain sitting balance if necessary or assist with
288 the speed of attacks and defensive retreats [4]. To date, only one study provides a comprehensive understanding
289 of the non-fencing arm in WF. Fung et al [4] analysed the trunk kinematics of fencers from category A (with good
290 trunk function) and B (with reduced trunk function) with and without the use of the non-fencing arm during the
291 lunge and fast return tasks. For both, the lunge and fast return tasks, performance of maximum trunk velocity was
292 significantly increased by athletes from category A (+ 0.47 ms⁻¹ and + 0.36 ms⁻¹) and B (+ 0.99 ms⁻¹ and + 0.80
293 ms⁻¹) when using the supporting bars. It is worth noting that the extent of performance enhancement was
294 considerably more important for athletes within category B, probably due to the reduced trunk function. These
295 results highlight that athletes from category A may not rely as much on the supporting bar and this may explain
296 the diverging opinions across the panel. In line with this, results from seated throwing studies indicated that able-
297 bodied participants displayed no significant difference in performance when they were using an assistive pole
298 which fulfils a similar function to the supporting bar in WF when compared to not using the pole [36-37].
299 However, it is worth noting that Fung et al [4] identified that performance of category A and B athletes was
300 significantly improved when the non-fencing arm was used indicating its potential role in sporting performance.
301 In this instance, strength, flexibility and motor control of the non-fencing arm may be desired qualities and thus

302 should be considered for classification purposes. Further research exploring the contribution of the non-fencing
303 arm could be of value and assist the decision-making process towards WF classification.

304 **4.8 Fitness**

305 Components of fitness will not contribute to the decision-making process regarding classification as impaired
306 cardiovascular function is not an eligible impairment but this information can be of interest to sport scientists
307 aiming to enhance the performance of athletes. The two fitness components including the ability to repeat high
308 intensity lunges and to sustain a high level of energy throughout the competition were attributes that reached
309 consensus. The ability to repeat high intensity lunges is in line with existing research, whereby Bernardi et al, [12]
310 simulated a direct elimination bout (sword not mentioned) and observed blood lactate values raising up to $4.70 \pm$
311 1.38 mmol/L. While these values are not excessively high, they are above the onset of blood lactate accumulation
312 (OBLA) [38], indicating the potential contribution of the anaerobic system. Low mean VO_2 values (24.7 ± 5.6
313 ml/kg/min) have previous been recorded in a simulated epee direct elimination bout in WF, indicating the low
314 contribution of the aerobic system [13]. However, it is worth noting that during competitions, athletes will engage
315 in a number of pool and direct elimination bouts and therefore the ability to recover from bout to bout may be
316 important as highlighted by the expert panel. Previous research in able-bodied fencing which has a similar
317 competition structure to WF identified that athletes would rely increasingly on the aerobic system as the
318 competition progresses during a simulated competition of epee [39]. Furthermore, aerobic fitness has previously
319 shown to enhance recovery from high intensity intermittent exercise through increased aerobic response, improved
320 lactate removal, and enhanced PCr regeneration [40, 41].

321 **4.9 Anthropometry**

322 In this study, the anthropometric qualities cited by coaches are not identified as eligible impairment types and will
323 therefore be of interest from a performance perspective but will provide no insight for classification purposes. All
324 three anthropometric qualities identified did not successfully reach consensus although consistently reaching a
325 relatively high level of agreement of $> 69\%$. Greater reach and seated height surprisingly did not reach consensus.
326 The diverging opinion across the panel could potentially be explained by the proximity of the two fencers in WF,
327 which tends to increase the pace of the bouts [3]. A proportion of the panel may consider that these qualities may
328 be negated as a result of the close proximity. Therefore, qualities of strength and power, which affect speed
329 generation, may be regarded as more important. Although not reaching consensus, a majority of the panel thought
330 that a large body mass would be a disadvantage to performance. An increase in body mass can be the result of

331 increased cross-sectional area or increased fat mass. Previous literature in able-bodied fencing identified that lunge
332 time was significantly correlated ($p \leq 0.05$) to dominant and non-dominant thigh cross-sectional area ($r= 0.29$ and
333 0.28) while body fat was detrimental to lunge performance with a significant correlation ($r=0.36$, $p \leq 0.05$) [25].
334 Follow up conversations with coaches lead to believe that due to the close proximity of athletes in WF and the
335 limited spatial displacement possible, an out-of-range strategy as per able-bodied fencers cannot be employed
336 [42]. As a result of this, athletes with a larger body mass would display a larger target area to the opponent resulting
337 in a competitive disadvantage.

338 **4.10 Limitations**

339 There are some limitations to the current study, in particular, recruiting and retaining participants in Delphi studies
340 is known to be challenging. To ensure expert opinions were gathered, the governing body IWAS, targeted active
341 Paralympic coaches from 41 potential federations identified as an active nation during the 2018 and 2019
342 competitive calendar. Therefore, while 16 participants may be considered a low number, when considering the
343 diverse countries represented in the sport, and the need to demonstrate sufficient English language proficiency to
344 partake, the current sample size can be considered as relatively large and captures approximately 20% of the
345 overall population. This also remains within the recommended guidelines of Iqbal & Pipon-Young [16], who
346 suggested that a panel between 10 and 50 is sufficient. Considering this research focused on a single Paralympic
347 sport, such number of participants was also deemed appropriate. In addition, a low sample size has previously
348 been acknowledged as appropriate if the expert panel has consistent training and knowledge in the sport [18].
349 Another limitation is the retention rate from round 1 to 3. One participant did not complete round 2 and 3
350 participants did not return the questionnaire after round 3. Sumsion [43] suggested that a 70 per cent response rate
351 should be maintained across all rounds. This study had a 94% response rate in round 2 and 81% in round 3, which
352 would therefore be considered as an acceptable participation rate.

353 **4.11 Application of Current Findings and Future Directions**

354 To develop an evidence-based classification system in Paralympic sports, a systematic and structured approach is
355 required as described in a number of publications [6, 7, 9, 11]. One of the initial steps is to develop a theoretical
356 model of the determinants of sports performance by identifying the key activities observed in the sport as well as
357 the physical qualities leading to sporting success. The current research is the first study attempting to explore all
358 physical qualities underpinning success in the sport of WF. This information can be used as the premise to guide
359 the development of valid measures of impairments, which is the subsequent step required in the process of

360 developing an evidence-based classification system. To drive classification research further in WF, future research
361 should focus on identifying the key activities observed in the sport by exploring the time motion characteristics
362 as well as quantifying movement occurrence across swords. Such research would assist with the development of
363 standardised, sport-specific determinants of performance, which in turn would enable the relationships between
364 measures of impairment performance to be established, laying the foundation of an evidence-based classification
365 system.

366 **5 Conclusion**

367 In WF, qualities of strength, power, flexibility and motor control of the trunk and fencing arm prevail. The role
368 of the non-fencing arm remains to be determined for category A athletes even if a majority of coaches and some
369 research suggests it has a positive contribution to performance. Any athletes displaying physical impairments
370 reducing these functions may be at a competitive disadvantage and therefore the assessment of such qualities
371 should be considered as part of an evidence-based classification system.

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