

1 NUTRITIONAL PROFILE OF CHADIAN ELITE COMBAT ATHLETES: A QUANTITATIVE 2 APPROACH IN THE PRE-COMPETITIVE PHASE

3

4 ABSTRACT

5 Nutritional balance represents a fundamental determinant of both athletic performance and health, particularly
6 within elite combat disciplines, which are frequently exposed to dietary imbalances. The present investigation
7 sought to quantitatively assess energy intake alongside macro- and micronutrient profiles in Chadian elite
8 combat athletes during the pre-competitive phase. This prospective cross-sectional study included 63 athletes (32
9 men and 31 women), aged between 16 and 29 years. Dietary intake was evaluated using a 24-hour recall method,
10 applying a multifactorial approach. Findings revealed significantly higher energy intake among men ($3414.44 \pm$
11 210.21 kcal/day) compared with women (2665.54 ± 257.01 kcal/day; $p < 0.0001$), consistent with international
12 recommendations for athletes. Protein intake was adequate (1.73 ± 0.37 g/kg/day in men; 1.59 ± 0.57 g/kg/day in
13 women), with no statistical difference ($p > 0.05$). Lipid intake accounted for 30% of total energy in men and
14 28% in women ($p > 0.05$), considered satisfactory. Carbohydrate intake met recommended standards but was
15 significantly higher in men (7.34 ± 1.14 g/kg/day) compared with women (6.34 ± 1.05 g/kg/day; $p < 0.001$). At
16 the micronutrient level, excessive intakes of iron and phosphorus were observed, while a marked calcium
17 deficiency affected both sexes ($p < 0.0003$). Intakes of vitamins B1, B2, B6 and C were generally adequate,
18 albeit slightly above recommended thresholds. These results highlight the need for targeted educational
19 strategies to address identified imbalances and optimise competitive preparation in Chadian athletes.

20 **KEYWORDS :** Sports nutrition; energy intake; macronutrient; micronutrient; combat sports; pre-competition.

21 INTRODUCTION

22 Energy deficits are frequently observed among athletes, adversely affecting both their health status and sporting
23 performance (1) (2). This issue largely stems from athletes' insufficient knowledge of their precise energy
24 requirements and of the macro and micronutrient intakes necessary to meet them adequately. Recent studies have
25 highlighted a notable underestimation by athletes of their daily nutritional needs, particularly in terms of energy
26 and carbohydrate intake, with statistically significant discrepancies compared with established recommendations
27 (3). This observation is of particular relevance in the context of high-level combat sports, where athletes' dietary
28 habits are often characterised by pronounced imbalances. Each martial art or wrestling discipline adheres to a
29 specific set of rules defining its unique status, shaped by the techniques employed and the demographic profile
30 of its practitioners (4). Despite these differences, combat sports are inherently technical and strategic disciplines,
31 marked by high energy expenditure that varies according to weight category. Scientific literature indicates that
32 face-to-face confrontations in combat sports place considerable demands on anaerobic energy systems, notably
33 the Adenosine Triphosphate-Phosphocreatine (ATP-PCr) system and the lactic glycolytic system during intense
34 maximal efforts, while aerobic processes remain active throughout the bout (5) (6) (7) (8). One of the principal
35 nutritional challenges specific to combat sports lies in the system of weight categorisation, which frequently
36 compels athletes to adopt rapid weight-loss (RWL) strategies prior to competition (9) (10). Such behaviours have

37 given rise to a range of inappropriate dietary practices, including meal omission, exclusion of essential foods or
38 entire food groups required to meet daily nutritional needs, and disordered eating behaviours such as binge-purge
39 cycles involving the use of diuretics and laxatives. These practices pose major health risks and compromise
40 athletic performance. For instance, rapid reductions in body mass (2–10%) through dietary restriction (fasting and
41 dehydration) have been associated with: 1) increased oxidative stress leading to electrolyte and hormonal
42 imbalances; 2) depletion of glycogen stores; 3) alterations in blood flow dynamics; 4) reduced plasma volume;
43 and 5) significant acute renal impairment (11) (12). RWL strategies are also correlated with various deleterious
44 physiological and psychological effects, such as reduced urinary output impairing toxin elimination, heightened
45 fatigue, and concentration difficulties, particularly among wrestlers and taekwondo practitioners (13) (14).
46 Several studies have further identified recurrent deficiencies in essential micronutrients among combat sport
47 athletes, notably vitamin D, magnesium, and calcium (15) (8). Although the determinants of health risks
48 associated with RWL strategies are increasingly well documented, their detrimental effects on performance
49 remain insufficiently clarified. Under certain specific conditions, some studies suggest that RWL can be
50 undertaken without inducing significant physiological or athletic impairments in combat sport practitioners (9)
51 (16) (17) (18). Conversely, other authors adopt a more cautious stance, emphasising that more substantial
52 reductions in body mass over a 24-hour period may impair the ability to sustain repeated physical efforts (19).
53 Similarly, other investigations have reported that a perceived decline in energy levels constitutes the most
54 frequently cited adverse effect of RWL, with additional negative consequences including cognitive disturbances
55 such as reduced concentration and episodes of confusion, as well as diminished motivation impairing
56 performance (14). It is therefore evident that, prior to implementing RWL strategies, a thorough assessment of
57 the nutritional status of combat sport athletes is imperative to ensure optimal management that safeguards health
58 and enhances performance. Athlete nutrition has long been a subject of concern for researchers worldwide, with
59 numerous studies conducted in the field of sports nutrition (3) (20) (21) (22). However, research focusing
60 specifically on combat sports remains relatively scarce, and very few studies have been undertaken in
61 sub-Saharan Africa (11) (15). In Chad, historical data and empirical observations reveal that national athletes’
62 performances in combat disciplines remain relatively modest on both African and international stages. This
63 reality underscores the importance of rigorously examining athletes’ dietary practices, particularly during the
64 pre-competitive phase, a period in which nutritional behaviours more accurately reflect underlying habits. In this
65 context, the present study aimed to quantitatively evaluate energy intake as well as macro- and micronutrient
66 contributions among combat sport practitioners, with the objective of proposing appropriate dietary adjustments
67 capable of preserving health and optimising performance.

68 **METHODOLOGIE/APPROCH**

69 **Study Design and Setting**

70 This investigation was conducted as a cross-sectional and prospective study aimed at analysing energy,
71 macronutrient, selected mineral, and vitamin intakes among high-level combat sport athletes during a collective
72 pre-competitive training period. The study took place in February and March 2023 in N’Djamena, the capital of
73 Chad, within the framework of preparations for the African Games. Data collection was organised in two phases:
74 1) sociodemographic and anthropometric assessment, and 2) dietary intake analysis. Prior to questionnaire

75 administration, the principal investigator introduced the study to the athletes, explained its objectives, and
76 provided clear instructions to ensure accurate and honest reporting. Dietary surveys were conducted in training
77 centres, while physico-chemical analyses of local foods were performed at the laboratory of the Centre for Food
78 Quality Control of N'Djamena.

79 **Statistical Analysis and Participants**

80 A priori power analysis was performed using G*Power version 3.1.9.7 (Heinrich Heine University, Düsseldorf,
81 Germany), which indicated that a minimum of 63 participants was required (independent t-test, statistical power
82 = 0.82, alpha = 0.05). Seventy-two athletes were screened for eligibility, of whom 63 met the inclusion criteria.
83 Participants were actively engaged in one of the following combat sports: Taekwondo (n = 26; 15 women, 11
84 men), Wrestling (n = 14; 7 women, 7 men), Karate (n = 14; 7 women, 7 men), and Judo (n = 9; 3 women, 6
85 men). The final sample comprised 31 women (49.2%) and 32 men (50.8%). Eligible athletes were members of
86 the national team, holders of national and international licences issued by their federations, aged over 15 years,
87 voluntary participants, and in good health. Individuals reporting medical conditions were excluded.

88 **Ethical Considerations**

89 The study was approved by the Ethics Committee of the Chadian Association of Health Researchers (Approval
90 No. 002/ASCS/BE). Official authorisation was also obtained from the Ministry of Sports (Authorisation No.
91 0010/MJS/SG/DGS/DSHN). Written informed consent was obtained from all participants prior to data
92 collection. Athletes and their coaches were briefed in detail about the study objectives before interviews
93 commenced. Participants were explicitly informed of their right to withdraw at any time without consequence,
94 and strict anonymity was guaranteed.

95 **Data Collection Procedures**

96 Data were collected by the principal investigator, assisted by students in Physical Education and Sport from the
97 National Institute of Youth and Sports (INJS) in N'Djamena, using semi-structured questionnaires. These were
98 administered within training facilities at least 45 minutes before practice sessions. The instruments were initially
99 developed in French, with translations provided in national languages (Chadian Arabic or Sara) for athletes with
100 limited proficiency in French. To ensure validity and reliability, a pre-test was conducted with 10 athletes from
101 the selected sample. The questionnaire was subsequently reviewed by a research committee, academic staff, and
102 nutritionists, and adjusted according to their recommendations.

103 **Section 1: Sociodemographic Information and Anthropometric Measurements**

104 The data collected included age, sex, educational level, socio-economic status, as well as alcohol and tobacco
105 consumption. Height, weight, and body mass index (BMI) were assessed in accordance with the criteria
106 established by the World Health Organization (WHO). Body weight was measured using a bioelectrical
107 impedance scale (Tanita model BC-545; capacity: 150 kg; precision: 0.1%). Height was measured with a
108 portable stadiometer on three occasions, with a one-minute interval between each measurement, and the mean

109 value was recorded. BMI was calculated by dividing weight (kg) by height squared (m²) and classified according
110 to WHO thresholds.

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113 **Section 2: Dietary Intake**

114 Nutritional intake among Chadian combat sport athletes was assessed using the 24-hour dietary recall method,
115 adapted to local eating habits. This approach was reinforced by the use of food portion photographs accompanied
116 by their respective weights, in order to address difficulties related to quantification. Participants were asked to
117 report all foods and beverages consumed the previous day, specifying the time and type of meal (breakfast,
118 lunch, dinner, snacks), including dietary supplements. Quantities ingested were estimated using household
119 utensils (glasses, spoons, cups, calabash fragments, other kitchen tools, half-litre measures) when portion images
120 were not available. An ingredient specification questionnaire was employed to collect complementary
121 information from the athletes' caterers and to perform calculations in accordance with the method of Dop et al.
122 (23). Dietary data were subsequently converted into mean daily nutritional intakes, including energy,
123 macronutrients, minerals, and vitamins. In the absence of a food composition table specific to Chad, a systematic
124 compilation of data from existing tables was undertaken following FAO/INFOODS guidelines, in order to
125 establish an adapted database. Conversion of foods into macronutrients (proteins, lipids, carbohydrates),
126 minerals (calcium, iron, phosphorus), vitamins (B1, B2, B6, C), and calculation of energy based on
127 macronutrient content relied on the following sources: Improved Food Composition Table for West Africa (24);
128 Food Composition and Nutrition Tables of Souci et al. (25) ; U.S. Department of Agriculture (USAD), & U.S.
129 Department of Health and Human Services (HHS) database (26); and Food Composition Table for Congo Basin
130 Countries (27).

131 **RESULTS**

132 Participants were aged between 16 and 29 years, with a mean age of 20.8 ± 3.2 years (18.6 ± 2.4 years in women
133 and 23.1 ± 4.1 years in men; $p < 0.0001$). Mean height was 1.74 ± 0.05 m (1.69 ± 0.03 m for women and $1.78 \pm$
134 0.07 m for men; $p < 0.0001$), while mean body weight was 67.59 ± 9.23 kg (62.47 ± 7.72 kg in women and 72.71
135 ± 10.74 kg in men; $p < 0.0001$). The BMI was 22.24 ± 2.37 kg/m² (21.78 ± 2.26 kg/m² in women and $22.71 \pm$
136 2.48 kg/m² in men), with no statistically significant difference between groups ($p > 0.05$).

137 Table 1 shows that the mean daily energy intake of all participants was 3039.99 ± 233.60 kcal, with women
138 consuming 2665.54 ± 257.01 kcal and men 3414.44 ± 210.21 kcal, a statistically significant difference between
139 sexes ($p < 0.002$). Mean protein intake across the group was 1.66 ± 0.48 g/kg/day, with values of 1.59 ± 0.57
140 g/kg/day in women and 1.73 ± 0.37 g/kg/day in men, with no significant difference between sexes ($p > 0.05$).
141 Lipid intake accounted for 29% of total energy intake (TEI), corresponding to 28% ($\sim 1.37 \pm 0.57$ g/kg/day) in
142 women and 30% ($\sim 1.57 \pm 0.46$ g/kg/day) in men, with no significant difference at the 5% threshold ($p > 0.05$).
143 Conversely, mean carbohydrate intake was significantly higher in men (7.34 ± 1.14 g/kg/day) compared with

144 women (6.34 ± 1.05 g/kg/day; $p < 0.001$). The overall group mean carbohydrate intake was estimated at $6.86 \pm$
 145 1.23 g/kg/day.

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Parameters	entire group (n=63)			p	Table 1 : Energy and macronu trient intake (n = 63)
	X ± S.D.	Women (n=31) X ± S.D	Men (n=32). X ± S.D		
Energy (kcal)	$3039,99 \pm 233,60.$	$2665,54 \pm 257,01$	$3414,44 \pm 210,21$	$< 0,002$	150 151 152 153 154 155 156 157 158
Protein (g/kg/day)	$1,66 \pm 0.48$	$1,59 \pm 0,57$	1.73 ± 0.27	$< 0,25$	
Fat (g/kg/day/%)	$1,47 \pm 0,51 / 29\% \text{ TEI}$	$1,37 \pm 0,54 / 28\% \text{ TEI}$	$1,57 \pm 0,51 / 30\% \text{ TEI}$		
Carbohydrate (g/kg/day)	$6,86 \pm 1,23$	$6,86 \pm 1,05.$	$6,86 \pm 1,14$	$< 0,001$	

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162 TEI :Total Energy Intake ; X : mean ; S.D : Standard Deviation

163 Table 2 presents mineral intakes of Chadian combat sport athletes during the pre-competitive training period.

164 Mean daily intakes of calcium, iron, and phosphorus for the entire group were 379.65 ± 127.44 mg/day, $24.13 \pm$

165 6.08 mg/day, and 1608.75 ± 412.35 mg/day, respectively. Calcium intake was higher in men (412.58 ± 116.92

166 mg/day) than in women (341.57 ± 132.89 mg/day), with a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.01$). Mean

167 daily iron intake was 20.89 ± 4.87 mg/day in women and 27.37 ± 5.71 mg/day in men, with significantly higher

168 values in men ($p < 0.0002$). Phosphorus intake averaged 1376.91 ± 339.94 mg/day in women and $1816.59 \pm$

169 402.57 mg/day in men, revealing a highly significant difference ($p < 0.003$).

170 **Table 2 : Daily mineral salt intake (n = 63)**

Parameters	entire group (n=63)	Women (n=31)	Men (n=32).	p	171
	X ± S.D.	X ± S.D	X ± S.D		
Calcium (mg)	379,65 ± 127,44	341,57 ± 132,39	412,58 ± 116,92	< 0,01	172 v)
Iron (mg)	24,13 ± 6,08	20,89 ± 4,87	27,37 ± 5,71	< 0,002	173 TEI :Total
Phosphorus (mg)	1608,751 ± 412,35	1376,91 ± 339,94	1816,59 ± 412,35	< 0,003	174 Energy

175 Intake ; X : mean ; S.D : Standard Deviation

176 Table 3 presents daily vitamin intakes. Mean thiamin (vitamin B1) intake was 1.15 ± 0.24 mg/day in women and
 177 1.57 ± 0.30 mg/day in men. Riboflavin (vitamin B2) intake was approximately 1.95 ± 0.44 mg/day in women
 178 and 2.43 ± 0.87 mg/day in men. Pyridoxine (vitamin B6) levels were 2.14 ± 0.45 mg/day in women and 2.84 ±
 179 0.79 mg/day in men. Finally, mean ascorbic acid (vitamin C) intake was 113.36 ± 44.44 mg/day in women and
 180 146.55 ± 54.16 mg/day in men. Application of the independent samples t-test revealed highly significant sex
 181 differences for thiamine (p < 0.0001), riboflavin (p < 0.007), pyridoxine (p < 0.0001), and ascorbic acid (p <
 182 0.01).

183 **Table 3 :**

Parameters	Entire group (n=63)	Women (n=31)	Men (n=32).	p	184
	X ± S.D.	X ± S.D	X ± S.D		185
Thiamin (mg)	1,36 ± 0,34	1,15 ± 0,24	1,57 ± 0,30	< 0,001	186
Riboflavin (mg)	2,19 ± 0,73	1,95 ± 0,44	2,43 ± 0,87	< 0,002	187
Pyridoxine (mg)	2,40 ± 0,73	2,14 ± 0,45	2,84 ± 0,79	< 0,001	188
Ascorbic acid (mg)	130,65 ± 51,93	113,36 ± 42,83	146,55 ± 54,16	< 0,013	189

184 **Daily**
 185 **vitamin**
 186 **intake of**
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 188 **nts (n =**
 189 **63)**

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193 TEI :Total Energy Intake ; X : mean ; S.D : Standard Deviation

194 **DISCUSSION**

195 The present study aimed to analyse the energy and nutrient intakes of elite Chadian athletes engaged in combat
196 sports, with particular attention to sex-related differences. As a preliminary investigation, it highlights certain
197 dietary specificities observed during the pre-competitive preparation phase. In the absence of prior research
198 addressing nutrition recommendations specific to Chadian athletes, or more broadly African athletes, this study
199 relied, as did other investigations conducted on the continent, on international guidelines. The references
200 consulted include expert reports from FAO/WHO/UNU, the International Olympic Committee (IOC), the French
201 Agency for Food, Environmental and Occupational Health & Safety (ANSES), the European Food Safety
202 Authority (EFSA), as well as position statements from the International Society of Sports Nutrition and the
203 Academies of Nutrition and Dietetics in Canada and the United States. These international recommendations
204 were adapted to the local context through the integration of typical, locally available foods.

205 The main findings can be summarised as follows: 1) Estimated energy intakes of Chadian combat sport athletes,
206 both male and female, fall within the ranges recommended by international organisations, with a highly
207 significant superiority among men ($p < 0.0001$). 2) Protein and lipid intakes appear broadly consistent with
208 recommendations, with no significant sex differences at the 5% threshold. 3) Conversely, a statistically highly
209 significant difference ($p < 0.001$) was observed for carbohydrate intake, with higher values among men. 4) Iron
210 and phosphorus intakes exceeded recommended levels, while a notable calcium deficiency was identified in both
211 groups. 5) Daily intakes of vitamins B1, B2, B6 and C were generally satisfactory, albeit slightly above
212 recommended values.

213 Optimal athletic performance is contingent upon a balanced diet, rich in energy and essential nutrients, which
214 supports adaptation to training and facilitates post-competition recovery (28). In this context, the mean daily
215 energy intake observed among Chadian male athletes, estimated at approximately 3414.44 kcal, falls within the
216 recommendations of 3200-3450 kcal/day for individuals with moderate to high physical activity levels (PAL:
217 1.75-1.9) (29). This energy value is not markedly different from the recommended dietary allowances (RDA) for
218 elite French athletes, estimated at 3400 kcal/day for the same age group (30), although it remains lower than
219 values reported among Lithuanian endurance athletes engaged in high-intensity disciplines such as swimming
220 (3707.1 kcal/day) or road cycling (3641.8 kcal/day) (31). The recurrent challenge of weight control in combat
221 sports, often driven by competitive strategies, necessitates strict dietary management among Chadian athletes,
222 which may explain their relatively lower energy intake compared with Lithuanian athletes. However, lower
223 energy intakes, ranging from 2566 to 2985 kcal/day in men, have also been reported in a study by Wardenaar et

224 al. (32), involving a cohort of 553 Dutch elite and sub-elite athletes from endurance, team, and strength
225 disciplines. Similarly, lower values than those observed among Chadian athletes were reported by Onywera et al.
226 in elite Kenyan long-distance runners, with an average intake of 2987 kcal/day. A comparable gap was noted in
227 the study by Bouhika et al. (34), conducted among Congolese athletes preparing for an international half-
228 marathon, with a mean energy intake of 2980.93 kcal. The relative superiority of energy intake among Chadian
229 athletes, while remaining within normative limits, compared with Kenyan and Congolese athletes, may be
230 attributed to the availability and diversity of energy sources in local dietary practices. According to FAO, food
231 resources in Chad are primarily based on cereals (millet, sorghum, pearl millet, “bérébéré”) and tubers (cassava,
232 sweet potato, taro, yam), which constitute excellent sources of carbohydrates, complemented by abundant lipid
233 sources that also provide energy.

234 Among Chadian female athletes, the mean daily energy intake, estimated at 2665.54 ± 257.01 kcal, falls within
235 the range of recommended intakes for women engaged in intense physical activity, set by FAO/WHO/UNU at
236 2250–2750 kcal/day (29). These values are also comparable to those reported among Lithuanian female
237 swimmers and cyclists, with respective intakes of 2563.3 kcal and 2772 kcal (31), and close to values observed
238 in highly active French female athletes, estimated at 2700 kcal (30). In contrast, markedly lower values were
239 reported in the study involving 52 elite American female athletes (gymnasts, long-distance and middle-distance
240 runners), with a mean intake of 1600 kcal (35), representing a difference of more than 1000 kcal compared with
241 Chadian data. This substantial discrepancy is primarily explained by the aesthetic constraints associated with
242 certain sports disciplines, where emphasis on body image frequently leads to restrictive, hypocaloric diets, under
243 the mistaken belief that weight reduction may enhance performance (35), a phenomenon not observed among
244 female combat sport athletes.

245 Beyond their structural role, proteins serve as an energy substrate mobilised during the depletion of carbohydrate
246 reserves, particularly through the oxidation of branched-chain amino acids (36) (Tarnopolsky et al., 2004). They
247 contribute to muscle protein synthesis and provide protection against damage induced by prolonged exertion
248 (37)(38). Adequate management of protein intake is therefore essential for the maintenance of muscle mass, the
249 optimisation of performance, and recovery (39). The mean protein intake of Chadian combat sport athletes was
250 estimated at 1.73 ± 0.37 g/kg/day in men and 1.59 ± 0.57 g/kg/day in women, with no statistically significant
251 difference between the two groups ($p > 0.05$). These values fall within international recommendations (1.2–2
252 g/kg/day) (40) (41) and reflect the high local consumption of meat, made accessible by its relatively low cost.

253 The principal sources include beef, goat, camel meat (19.5 g protein/100 g), fish from Lake Chad, poultry,
254 locusts, and various legumes (beans, ground peas). Collectively, these foods, widely represented in the Chadian
255 household diet, provide high-quality protein intake. Nevertheless, these values remain lower than those reported
256 by Lukas et al. (42) among elite Ethiopian long-distance runners, whose intakes reached 1.8 g/kg/day. This
257 difference underscores the importance of nutritional timing in disciplines with high energy expenditure, such as
258 long-distance running (~700 kcal/h) (43), where protein oxidation contributes more substantially to meeting
259 energy requirements. By contrast, combat sports, characterised by short, intense, and intermittent efforts, rely
260 primarily on aerobic glycolysis and lipid oxidation, thereby explaining relatively lower protein demands.

261 With regard to daily lipid intake, the findings of the present study indicate a mean consumption representing
262 30% of total energy intake (TEI), equivalent to 113.48 ± 34.02 g/day in men, and 28% of TEI, corresponding to
263 84.12 ± 28.4 g/day in women. These values fall within the margins of the consensual nutritional
264 recommendations established by Thomas et al. (20-30%) (41), applicable to athletes irrespective of sex. A
265 broader range of recommendations, with a higher upper limit, is reported in other scientific sources, namely 20-
266 35% (26). Among Chadian athletes, the observed lipid intakes (30% in men and 28% in women) did not differ
267 significantly ($p > 0.05$), although a slight superiority was noted in men. These results are consistent with the
268 ranges reported in elite French athletes (30). In comparison, data from other African contexts reveal lower lipid
269 intakes: 23.3% among Ethiopian long-distance runners (44); 11.38% among Congolese footballers from
270 Brazzaville; and 10.88% among basketball players (45). Chadian athletes therefore exhibit markedly higher lipid
271 intakes. This specificity reflects a dietary pattern characterised by substantial fat consumption, particularly
272 vegetable oils and animal fats, which are widely used in the preparation of traditional dishes and readily
273 available in local markets. Conversely, the more moderate lipid intake observed among female athletes appears
274 to be influenced by social representations linking fat consumption to the risk of overweight.

275 The diet of Chadian athletes provides on average 7.34 ± 1.14 g/kg/day of carbohydrate in men, compared with
276 6.34 ± 1.05 g/kg/day in women. This difference, statistically highly significant at the 5% threshold, highlights a
277 greater consumption among male athletes. Nevertheless, both values fall within the consensual recommendations
278 for athletes engaged in high-intensity physical activity, namely 5-12 g/kg/day (41) (46). It should be noted that
279 higher intakes, ranging from 8 to 12 g/kg/day, are recommended for athletes undertaking particularly high
280 training volumes (≥ 8 h/week), in order to promote rapid and continuous replenishment of endogenous glycogen
281 stores (40).

282 Comparison of carbohydrate intakes among Chadian athletes with those reported in other international cohorts
283 reveals notable differences. For instance, Wardenaar et al. (2017) observed a maximum mean carbohydrate
284 intake of approximately 5 g/kg/day(32), lower than the values recorded in both sexes of Chadian athletes.
285 Conversely, Lukas et al. reported higher intakes among elite Ethiopian long-distance runners, reaching 9 g/kg/day
286 (42), exceeding Chadian values. These discrepancies can be explained by contextual factors and the specific
287 demands of the disciplines practised. Among Chadian athletes, the predominance of combat sports characterised
288 by explosive and intermittent efforts sustained over prolonged durations results in high energy requirements.
289 This demand is further reinforced by the abundant availability of carbohydrate-rich foods within local dietary
290 habits, thereby facilitating an optimal coverage of needs. In contrast, the higher intakes observed among
291 Ethiopian athletes are explained by the practice of intense endurance exercise at altitude (approximately 2400
292 m), a physiological context that increases energy demand and justifies nutritional strategies tailored to their
293 status as world-renowned long-distance runners

294 The assessment of mineral intake among Chadian combat sport athletes revealed a marked calcium deficiency,
295 with mean values of 412.58 ± 116.92 mg/day in men and 341.57 ± 132.89 mg/day in women. These levels are
296 well below international recommendations, which set daily intake at 1000 mg/day for adults aged 19-50 years
297 and 1300 mg/day for adolescents aged 9-18 years (47) (26) (30). Martin proposed slightly different thresholds,
298 namely 900 mg/day for men and 1200 mg/day for women (30). The observed intakes are therefore more than
299 50% lower than recommended. Similar deficiencies have been reported among South African martial arts
300 practitioners (15), whereas elite South African wrestlers demonstrated considerably higher intakes, reaching
301 1281.4 ± 1209.6 mg/day (1) and 1241 mg/day (48). This disparity suggests that the deficiencies observed in
302 Chad are strongly influenced by geographical and socio-economic factors. In the south of the country, an
303 agricultural region from which the majority of these combat athletes originate, the consumption of plant-based
304 beverages (notably tea) predominates over milk and dairy products, which are the principal sources of calcium
305 but often financially inaccessible. By contrast, the north, characterised by cattle and camel farming, favours more
306 regular consumption of dairy products. These findings align with concerns raised by the IOC Expert Group,
307 which emphasises the frequent occurrence of mineral deficiencies, particularly calcium, among elite athletes(47).
308 Calcium is essential for maintaining homeostasis, deficiency therefore exposes athletes to bone fragility, stress
309 fractures, osteoporosis, muscle cramps, and neuromuscular disorders(41) (49).

310 In parallel, iron and phosphorus intakes appear excessive: 20.89 ± 4.87 mg/day in women and 27.37 ± 5.71
311 mg/day in men for iron; 1376.91 ± 339.94 mg/day in women and 1816.59 ± 402.57 mg/day in men for
312 phosphorus. These values substantially exceed the recommendations of EFSA (50) and Martin (30), which
313 suggest 9–11 mg/day of iron for men, 16 mg/day for women, and 700–750 mg/day of phosphorus for both sexes.
314 Although both minerals support haemoglobin synthesis, ATP production, and muscle repair, their excess can be
315 harmful. The scientific literature notes that iron overload may lead to iron storage disease, oxidative stress,
316 cardiovascular risk, and hepatic dysfunction (51). Similarly, excessive phosphorus intake can cause calcium–
317 phosphorus imbalance, bone fragility, hyperphosphataemia, and metabolic disorders (52) (53). The causes of
318 these excesses can be attributed to the availability of dietary sources such as red meat (beef, camel, sheep, goat),
319 dried fish, and cereals, which are regularly consumed in traditional Chadian dishes.

320 The daily vitamin intakes observed among Chadian combat sport athletes were found to be slightly above the
321 reference thresholds established by ANSES (54), which are based on the international recommendations of
322 WHO/FAO(55). These benchmarks set nutritional requirements for vitamin B1 at 1.1–1.2 mg/day for women and
323 1.3–1.4 mg/day for men; for vitamin B2 at 1.4–1.5 mg/day for women and 1.6–1.7 mg/day for men; for vitamin
324 B6 at 1.5–1.6 mg/day for women and 1.6–1.7 mg/day for men; and for vitamin C at 110 mg/day for both sexes. It
325 is important to recall that B-complex vitamins are closely linked to energy metabolism, which justifies their
326 modulation according to physical activity level (PAL: 1.8–2). By contrast, vitamin C plays an essential role in
327 collagen synthesis, antioxidant protection, and the optimisation of iron absorption, and is therefore not correlated
328 with PAL or sex. The observed exceedances may be explained, on the one hand, by the increased micronutrient
329 requirements induced by the intensive practice of combat sports, which strongly mobilise energy and nutrient
330 reserves, and on the other hand, by the availability and integration of specific food sources within local dietary
331 habits.

332 This study makes a significant contribution to the enrichment of the literature on sports nutrition in sub-Saharan
333 Africa, by providing novel data on the nutritional intakes of Chadian combat sport athletes during the pre-
334 competitive preparation phase. Through the application of the 24-hour dietary recall method, the analysis
335 enabled rigorous methodological triangulation between athletes' self-reported consumption, local measurement
336 units (bowls, spoons, fragments of calabash) or photographs of food portions, and the biochemical properties of
337 traditional Chadian foods.

338 **Study Limitations**

339 The study remains coherent despite two methodological limitations. First, the 24-hour dietary recall method
340 requires constant vigilance from the research team and sustained cooperation from participants. It relies on
341 respondents' ability to remember their consumption from the previous day, which may affect data accuracy.
342 Second, the limited number of participants per sporting discipline restricts the generalisation of findings to all
343 combat sport athletes in Chad. Nevertheless, these limitations do not compromise the robustness of the
344 observations. The combination of dietary recall with food portion estimation ensured reliable data collection
345 during the pre-competitive period. The credibility of the results was further strengthened by a rigorous protocol,
346 voluntary recruitment, and the freedom granted to participants to withdraw at any time, thereby ensuring the
347 precision and reliability of responses.

348 **CONCLUSION**

349 The findings of this study highlight a general adequacy of energy and macronutrient intakes with international
350 recommendations, while revealing notable imbalances in micronutrient status. In particular, excessive iron and
351 phosphorus intakes contrast with a significant calcium deficiency, whereas vitamin intakes appear broadly
352 satisfactory, despite occasional exceedances of recommended thresholds. These observations underscore the
353 importance of structured nutritional guidance for athletes, based on educational programmes that integrate
354 sporting, health, and nutritional dimensions. Such an approach would contribute simultaneously to optimising
355 performance and safeguarding health, while enriching the scientific literature on sports nutrition in the African
356 context. Furthermore, future research should involve larger and more representative samples, covering diverse
357 combat disciplines, in order to provide a more comprehensive assessment of nutritional status, the impact of
358 nutritional strategies, and the effects of educational interventions on athletes' performance and health. The
359 resulting data could serve as discipline-specific dietary reference frameworks for combat sports.

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363 **Declaration of Interest**

364 The authors declare no conflict of interest in relation to this article.

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