

References

1. Bakker-Arkema R, Davidson MH, Goldstein RJ, Davignon J, Isaacsohn JL, Weiss SR, Keikson LM, Brown V, Miller VT, Shurzinske LJ, Black DM. Efficacy and safety of a new HMG-CoA reductase inhibitor, atorvastatin, in patients with hypertriglyceridemia. *JAMA* 1996; 275: 128-33.
2. Ertürk S, Aktas ES, Ersoy L, Fıçoğlu S. An HPLC method for the determination of atorvastatin and its impurities in bulk drug and tablets. *J Pharma Biomed Anal.* 2003; 33: 1017-23.
3. International Conferences on Harmonization, Draft Revised Guidance on Impurities in New Drug Products. Q3B(R). Federal Register. 2000; 65: 44791-97.
4. Roy J. Pharmaceutical impurities: A mini-review. *AAPS PharmSciTech.* 2002; 3: 1-8.

Original Article

High Blood Pressure can be Controlled by Reducing Extra Table Salt Intake

Alamgir AKM¹, Ali SMK², Haque KMHS³

Abstract

Background: This quasi-experimental community trial was done through door-to-door health education to find out effect of reducing extra table salt intake on patients with high blood pressure.

Material and Method: This study was conducted among 4,930 respondents out of 7,474 population (response rate was 65.96%). Respondents had age 18 years or above living in Mohammadpur area of Dhaka city in Bangladesh. Study period was from August 2005 to February 2009. Intervention was for 18 months on 282 (male 69.5% and female 30.5%) respondents with stage-I hypertension. Respondents on trial had no co-morbidity and they were neither aware about their hypertension nor were ever treated for it. The intervention was given person-to-person to quit extra table salt after signing the informed consent form. Follow-up for selected parameters were done after 6, 12 and 18 month of intervention. Data analysis and interpretation were done through SPSS. **Result:** Mean Blood Pressure of the respondents was found to be 121/78 mmHg. Overall prevalence of hypertension is 20.1% (JNC-7 criteria). After 18m intervention percent reduction of SBP is -7.0% and DBP is -9.9%. Blood pressure of 14.9% (n=42) went up in spite of behavioural risk reduction. Normal blood pressure was found among 7.8% respondents having stage-I hypertension while 17.7% remained at stage-I but their blood pressure is reduced. Multinomial regression analysis showed chi-square value of 25.8 df 13 p=0.018 between use of extra table salt and systolic blood pressure while the value was 28.684 df 11 p= 0.003 for diastolic blood pressure in a -2 Log Likelihood reduced model. At beginning 44% respondents used extra salt while eating. After 6m, 12m and 18m of intervention, extra salt intake was found among 20.6%, 5.0% and 1.8% respondents respectively. Quantitatively extra salt intake reduced from 63±6.5g per week at beginning to 29±4.6g per week after 18m intervention. Change of salt intake was significantly related to change of both SBP (F= 9.688; p=0.000) and DBP (F=6.544; p=0.002). Quality of life was evaluated for both subjective and objective indices. **Conclusion:** Reversal of hypertension was 56.7% by lifestyle modification and behavioural changes including salt intake reduction. This study confirmed relation of salt with hypertension and also confirmed reduction of blood pressure after reducing salt intake. This study recommended no extra salt intake for patients at risk or with high blood pressure.

Key words: Salt and Hypertension, Prevalence of Hypertension in Bangladesh.

1. **AKM Alamgir**, MBBS, DIH, MPhil, PhD, Professor & Head, Dept. of Community Medicine, Dhaka National Medical College 2. Shah Mohammad Keramat Ali, MBBS, DPH, M CommH, PhD, Professor, Clinical Nutrition, Institute of Nutrition and Food Science, University of Dhaka 3 KMHS Sirajul Haque, MBBS, FCPS, FRCP (Edin), FACC (USA), Professor and Chairman, Dept. of Cardiology & Dean, Faculty of Medicine, Bangabandhu Sheikh Mujib Medical University

Correspondence: Prof. AKM Alamgir, Professor and Head, Dept. of Community Medicine, Dhaka National Medical College, 53/1, Johnson Road, Dhaka-1100, Bangladesh. E-mail: akm.alamgir@yahoo.com

Introduction

Sodium chloride retains water to increase water volume causing increased plasma volume resulting increased cardiac output and increased blood pressure. Increased salt intake causes increased secretion of ouobain by adrenal gland. Ouobain regulates the sodium and calcium present in the smooth muscle cells of the arteries by regulating the proteins.

Excess amount of ouobain secretion disrupts cellular sodium and calcium balance.¹ Sodium accumulates in arteries, causing protein regulators to bring in more calcium causing hypertension by constricting artery. Excessive salt consumption can cause narrowing of the renal artery resulting restriction of blood flow through it. This results in secretion of the kidney hormones renin and angiotensin. Renin and angiotensin increase pressure on peripheral arteries and cause hypertension.² In patients with hypertension a rightward shift in the pressure-natriuresis curve occurs meaning that they need to excrete higher sodium load.³ An study found a new storage area for salt within skin in the body and defected process behind this storage cause hypertension.⁴ Salt is also stored in cells and in the interstitium. Jens Titze and colleagues have shown that a high-salt diet in rats leads to the accumulation of salt in the interstitium of the skin. This process is carefully regulated by the macrophages. The researchers found a gene regulator (transcription factor) called TonEBP (tonicity-responsible enhancer binding protein) in those macrophages. TonEBP is activated in these cells in response to high salt and turns on a gene (VEGF-C - vascular endothelial growth factor C) that controls the production of lymphatic blood vessels. With high-salt diet the lymphatic vessels increase. The researchers found that when these macrophages are depleted or if the receptor for VEGF-C is absent, the animals are not able to store their salt and become hypertensive. Effect of salt on hypertension has been documented in several articles.^{5,6} This study was designed to find out extra

salt intake habit among patients with hypertension and also to analyze effect of reduction of extra table salt intake on high blood pressure.

Materials and Method

This community trial was conducted from August 2005 to February 2009 with an intervention period of 18 months at urban Mohammadpur area of Dhaka City in Bangladesh. Adults with 18 years age or above as recorded in voter list were the population comprising 7,474 persons. Data collection was done among 4,930 respondents comprising a response rate of 65.96%. Cluster randomized sampling⁷ was done to collect 282 adults, 196 (69.5%) male and 86 (30.5%) female, with stage-I hypertension without any co-morbidity and treatment. Informed consent was taken for intervention adopting WHO-MONICA protocol. One-to-one counselling was done for avoidance of extra table salt in of 3-tier model: home based individual counselling, centre-based individual counselling and center based peer-group interactive group-counselling sessions. Follow-up for selected parameters was done every 6, 12, and 18 month. Quality of life was measured using the GHQ-28, PHQ-9 and SF-36 questionnaire.^{8,9} Questionnaire was checked for completeness, consistency, mutually exclusiveness, exhaustion, reliability and validity. Equipments for anthropometric measurement or clinical examination were 3M Littmann Classic II SE (USA) Stethoscope, ALPK2 Mercurial Sphygmomanometer, Height-length Measuring stadiometer, Omron Digital Weighing Scale [Model HN-280], Fukuda C 100 ECG machine and Glucometer etc. Measurement of Blood Pressure was done at home-setting as per standard protocol using proper machine with appropriate cuff size.¹⁰⁻¹⁴ Salt intake was measured semi quantitatively by using premeasured spoons distributed to respondents to use salt both for eating at table and also for cooking. Seven days recall method was used in this study.

Study or intervention end-points meant death, drop-out or migration of study subject. No incidence of death happened during study period. Evaluation was a factorial design to monitor and test statistically the outcome of interest i.e. change of blood pressure and reduction of salt intake. Data analysis and interpretation were done using SPSS programme version 17.0 for windows.

Result

Overall prevalence of hypertension was 20.1% (JNC-7 criteria). After 18m intervention, sBP/dBP reduction was -9.1/-8.4 mmHg (Fig-I). Mean systolic blood pressure of the cases with stage-I hypertension was 137.9 ± 11.7 mmHg and became 127.1 ± 9.5 mmHg after 18month intervention (Table-I). Mean diastolic blood pressure was 91.2 ± 4.8 mmHg at baseline but became 82.3 ± 4.6 after 18m intervention.

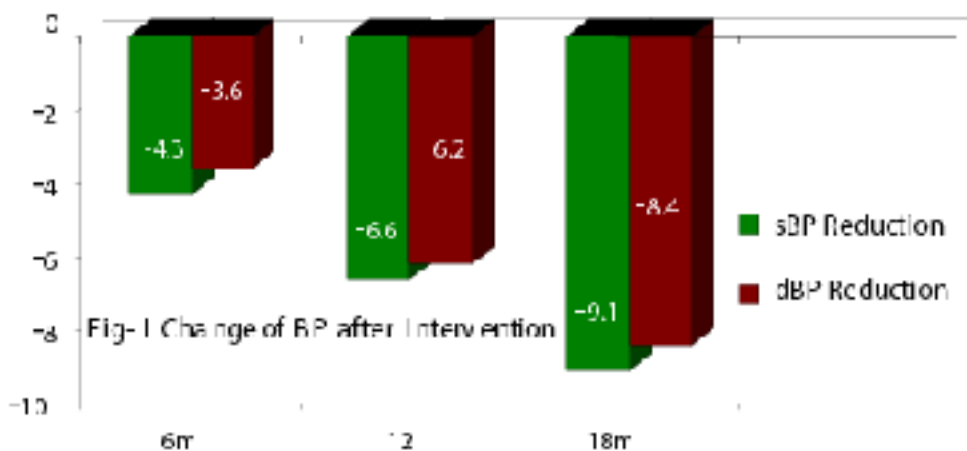


Table-I Mean Blood Pressure during Intervention

	Systolic		Diastolic	
	Baseline	After 18 m	Baseline	After 18 m
Sample	282	210	282	210
Mean BP (mmHg)	137.9 ± 11.7	127.1 ± 9.5	91.2 ± 4.8	82.3 ± 4.6
Percent Reduction		7.0%		9.9%
Paired t-test value	$t=22.9$ df 209 $p<0.001$		$t=26.5$ df 209 $p<0.001$	

Blood pressure reversed to normal in 7.8% cases and to pre-hypertension level in 48.9% cases. BP remained at stage-I in 17.7% cases but was reduced from the

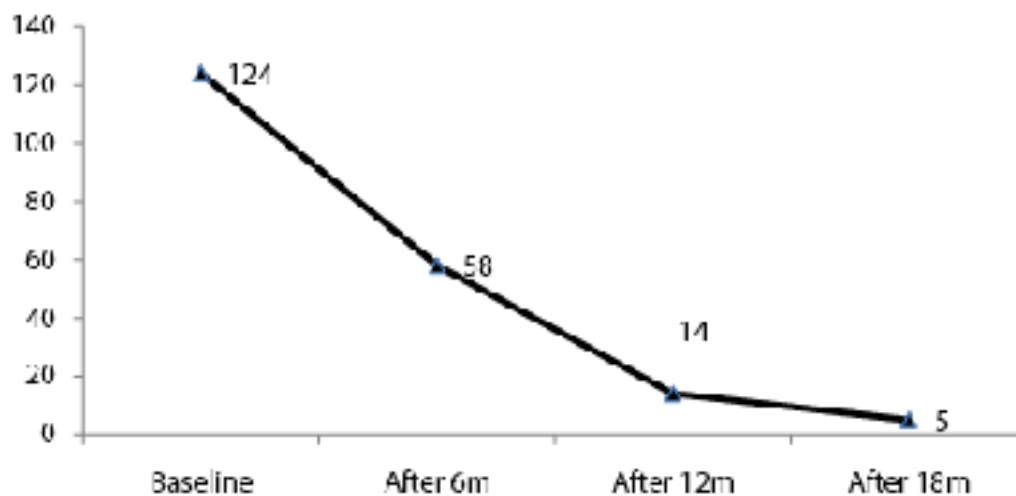
baseline level (Table-II). Blood pressure of 14.9% (n=42) cases went up in spite of behavioural risk reduction and required pharmacological intervention.

Table-II Outcome of Intervention : Stage-I Hypertension respondents (n=282)

Outcome	Reversed to Normal BP	Reversed to Pre-HTN	Remained Stage-I HTN	Drop out		Total
				Went up Stage II HTN	Other causes	
Baseline			282			
After 06 months	14 (5%)	128 (45.4%)	116 (41.1%)	8 (2.8%)	16 (5.7%)	282 (100%)
After 12 months	20 (7.7%)	137 (51.2%)	72 (27.9%)	26 (10.1%)	8 (3.1%)	258 (100%)
After 18 months	22 (9.8%)	138 (61.6%)	50 (22.3%)	8 (3.6%)	6 (2.7%)	224 (100%)
End Result	22 (7.8%)	138 (48.9%)	50 (17.7%)	42 (14.9%)	30 (10.7%)	282 (100%)

Extra table salt was taken by 44% respondents with stage-I hypertension at the beginning of the study amounting on average to about 63 ± 6.5 g per week (meaning 7g per day) quantified with pre-measured spoon. Extra table salt intake was reduced to 29 ± 4.6

per week after 18m intervention. Salt intake behaviour was significantly reduced after the intervention. After 6m, 12m and 18m intervention salt intake was found among 58 (20.6%), 14 (5.0%) and 05(1.8%) respondents respectively (Fig-2).

Fig-2 Change of number of respondents with HTN taking extra salt (n=282)

Change of salt intake significantly related to change of both sBP ($F=9.688$; $p=0.000$; adjusted $r^2=0.077$) and dBp ($F=6.544$; $p=0.002$; $r^2=0.050$) (Table-IV).

Table-IV GLM Test between change of salt intake and BP Change at 18 month

Statistic	Type III Sum of Squares				
	of Squares	df	Mean Square	F Value	P,
Change of Salt Use Vs.	591.175	2	295.588	9.688	.000
Change of sBP					
Change of Salt Use Vs.	263.8461	2	131.930	6.544	.02
Change of dBP					

r² = 0.086 (Adjusted 0.077) for sBP and 0.069 (Adjusted = 0.050) for dBP

Dependent Variable: Change of BP at 18m

Multiple regression analysis was done for testing role of change of salt intake, after removing the effect of other variables. For systolic BP reduction of salt intake was

found to be the best predictor (Beta =0.273, t= 4.148, p=0.000) (Table-V).

Table-V Predictor co-efficient and significance for BP at 18m

Systolic Blood Pressure Predictors				
Sl. No.	Description	Beta	t	p
1.	Salt reduction	0.273	4.148	0.000
2.	Activity increment	0.179	2.702	0.007
3.	Weight Reduction	0.126	1.860	0.064
4.	Smoking Reduction	0.009	0.124	0.902
Diastolic Blood Pressure Predictors				
1.	Salt reduction	0.173	2.462	0.015
2.	Weight Reduction	0.144	2.038	0.043
3.	Activity increment	0.138	1.982	0.049
4.	Smoking Reduction	0.025	0.340	0.735

Discussion

This was a multi-variable intervention study focusing life style modification and behavioural changes. Impact of other variables was also important confounder for study. Percentage contribution of salt use was very difficult to isolate. Correlation of salt with hypertension was tested at beginning of the study. Relationship between use of extra table salt and blood pressure was tested with multinominal regression analysis showing statistically significant association. The chi-square statistic obtained was the difference in -2 log-likelihoods between the final model and a reduced model. This reduced model was equivalent to the final

model because omitting the effect did not increase the degrees of freedom. The reduced model was formed by omitting an effect from the final model. The null hypothesis was that all parameters of that effect were zero. Counselling was done to reduce intake of extra table salt. At the end of 18 month salt intake was found to be reduced both in quantity and also frequency. This reduction in salt intake was again tested for correlation with the change of blood pressure. Positive correlation was observed again. This observation strongly indicated role of salt intake as causation of hypertension and confirms the role for reducing blood pressure when

Similar observation was reported also in other study reports.^{15,16} This study also statistically proved that reduction of salt intake could significantly reduce both systolic and diastolic blood pressure. Salt was also found to be the best predictor for occurrence and reduction of both systolic and diastolic blood pressure.

Extra salt intake was reduced from 44% at beginning of intervention to 1.8% at the end of 18 month intervention. This change of reduced salt intake significantly influenced change of both systolic and diastolic blood pressure. Multinomial regression analysis showed chi-square value of 25.8 df 13 $p=0.018$ between use of extra table salt and systolic blood pressure while the value is 28.684 df 11 $p=0.003$ for diastolic blood pressure (Table-III) in a -2 Log Likelihood reduced model. The chi-square statistic was the difference in -2 log-likelihoods between the final model and a reduced model. This reduced model was equivalent to the final model because omitting the effect did not increase the degrees of freedom.

When tested in reduced model by multiple regression analysis, salt reduction was found to be the best predictor ($t=4.148$; $p=0.000$ for sBP and $t=2.462$; $p=0.015$ for dBP) for reducing both systolic and diastolic blood pressure compared to other behavioural determinants. Salt reduction contributes more for systolic blood pressure reduction than comparable diastolic blood pressure reduction. In brief, salt intake is found significantly associated with causation of blood pressure and also reduction of salt intake significantly contributes to reversal of blood pressure.

Conclusion

Reversal of hypertension was 56.7% by combined impact of lifestyle and behavioural changes including salt intake reduction. But individually salt intake reduction was found to be more contributory than any other individual risk factors under study. This study confirms relation of salt with hypertension and also confirms reduction of blood pressure after reducing salt intake. This study recommends no extra salt intake for patients with high blood pressure.

References:

1. Haddy FJ. Salt-Sensitive Hypertension. NEJM, August 2002; 347(6):448-449.
2. Gartenstein D. How Does Salt Cause Hypertension? eHow. <http://www.ehow.com/> accessed on 22-10-2009.
3. Johnson RJ, Herrera-Acosta J, Schreiner GF, Rodríguez-Iturbe B. Subtle Acquired Renal Injury as a Mechanism of Salt-Sensitive Hypertension. NEJM March 2002; 346(12):913-923.
4. MedIndia. Salt and Hypertension - What's the Connection? Hypertension News. <http://www.medindia.net/index.htm> accessed on 14 June,2009.
5. O'Shaughnessy KM, Karet FE. Salt handling and hypertension. J Clin. Invest. 2004;113(8): 1075-1081.
6. Reudelhuber TL. Salt-sensitive hypertension: if only it were as simple as rocket science. J. Clin. Invest. 2003; 111(8): 1115-1116.
7. Bennett S, Parpia T, Hayes R, Cousens S. Methods for the analysis of incidence rates in cluster randomized trials. Int J Epidemiol. 2002;31:839-846.
8. Zigmond AS, Snaith RP: The hospital anxiety and depression scale. Acta Psychiatr Scand 1983, 67:361-370.
9. Willmott SA, Boardman JAP, Henshaw CA, Jones PW. Understanding General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-28) score and its threshold. Soc Psychiatry Psychiatr Epidemiol 2004,39(8):613-617.
10. Pickering TG, Hall JE, Appel LJ, Falkner BE, Graves J, Hill MN, Jones DW, Kurtz T, Sheps SG, Roccella EJ. Recommendations for blood pressure measurement in human and experimental animals - Part 1: blood pressure measurement in human: A statement for professionals from the subcommittee of professional and public education of the American Heart Association Council on high blood pressure research. Hypertension. 2005;45:142-185.
11. World Health Organization, International Society of Hypertension Writing Group. 2003 World Health Organization (WHO)/International Society of Hypertension (ISH) statement on management of hypertension. Journal of Hypertension 2003, 21:1983-1992.

12. Ramsay LE, Williams B, Johnston GD, et al. BHS Guidelines. Guidelines for management of hypertension: report of the third working party of the British Hypertension Society. *Journal of Human Hypertension* (1999) 13, 569-592
 13. Williams B, Poulter NR, Brown MJ, Davis M, McInnes GT, Potter JF, Sever PS, Thom SMcG. British Hypertension Society Guidelines. Guidelines for management of hypertension: report of the fourth working party of the British Hypertension Society, 2004-BHS IV. *Journal of Human Hypertension*, 2004; 18: 139-185.
 14. US Department of Health and Human Services. The seventh report of the Joint National Committee on Prevention, Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood Pressure (JNC-7). NIH Publication No. 03-5233; May 2003: 2-3.
 15. Sacks FM, Svetkey LP, Vollmer WM, et al. The DASH-Sodium Collaborative Research Group. Effects on blood pressure of reduced dietary sodium and the dietary approaches to stop hypertension (DASH) diet. *N Engl J Med*, 2001; 344 (1):3-10.
 16. Akhteruzzaman S. Molecular Genetics of Human Hypertension: New Treatment Approach. *BJMS*, March 2003;9(1): 51-57.
-