

## Daily Consumption of Salt and their Effects on Health

Nasratullah Mahboob<sup>a</sup>, Rohullah Hanif<sup>a</sup>, Waliimam Ulfat<sup>b</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Department of Chemistry, Faculty of Education, Samangan Higher Education Institute, Samangan, Afghanistan

<sup>b</sup> Department of Chemistry, Faculty of Science, Nangarhar University, Nangarhar, Afghanistan  
Corresponding author email id: waliimamulfat@gmail.com

### Abstract

Salt takes remained the focus of extensive systematic study pertaining to blood pressure (BP) increase and cardiovascular (CVDs) fatalities throughout the past century. BP could usually be dropped with a moderate salt reduction in the food supplement. Recently, though, some in the academic community and in the general media have disputed the advantages of salt restriction, citing conflicting results seen in a few observational studies. A decrease in nutritional salt intake after the suggested volume of fewer than 5-6 g/day to the present consumption of 9–12 g/day will have significant positive benefits on cardiovascular health as well as significant cost savings for healthcare globally. The World Health Organization (WHO) encourages nations with membership to proceeds inaction to overcome the desire population nutritive salt consumption in order to reduce the quantity of losses from increase in blood pressure (HTN), (CVDs), and stroke. Reducing nutritional salt consumption has been strongly recommended as one of the top priority actions to address the international non-communicable infection disasters. However, other experts continue to support the idea that extremely limit the salt consumption might raise the risk of CVDs morbidity and mortality. The ideal strategies for the less use of Natruim and consumption marks for over-all residents may be determined through future study. Even that time, alimentary salt consumption saving initiatives must stay at the highest of the community fitness plan as we continue to reach consensus on the largest advantages of salt reduction for cardiovascular disease avoidance.

**Key words:** salt consumption, blood pressure and cardiovascular diseases

### Introduction

The question of whether contemporary salt consumption is unhealthy has received a lot of attention lately. Rendering to evaluations, high BP is to responsibility for Forty-nine percent of ischemic heart disease and sixty-two percent of cerebrovascular disease globally. Less than 5 g of salt should be consumed daily, according to an official description created by the WHO and the Food and Agriculture Organization of the UN. The WHO takes advised associated countries to work hard for the minimizing the nutritional salt consumption overall in order to control the quantity of expiries from HTN, CVDs, and stroke. This is because excessive salt consumption has a negative impact on health, especially BP ranks and CVDs (WHO report 2007).

Natruim chloride (NaCl), which is forty percent of Natruim and sixty percent of chloride, which transfer electrons and as a result salt is formed. Salt crystals are translucent, cubical shapes, and typically have a white appearance. Salt has a 58.443 g/mol Mm, a Mp of 801 °C (1,474 °F), and a Bp of 1,465 °C (2,669 °F). When salt is dissolved in  $H_2O$ , it separates into  $Na^+$

and  $Cl^-$  ions. Salt is easily soluble in  $H_2O$ . NaCl has been the focus of much scientific study pertaining to blood pressure (BP) rise and cardiac expires over the past century. However, some in the academic community and the general public have recently disputed the advantages of salt restriction, citing conflicting results found in various observational studies ( Alderman., 2010; Kolata., 2013).

### **Brief history of Salt**

Humans consumed only a very modest amount of NaCl (0.1–0.5 g/day) for millions of years. Of all the foods that people eat, meat has the highest salt content (around 0.6g of salt per pound). Meat was the primary source of nutrition for humans throughout the hunter-gatherer era. 50% of their diet was meat, and 50% was plants. So, less than 1 g of salt was consumed daily throughout the Paleolithic period. Agriculture was created as a result of population growth in the interim, and in the first few thousand years following its invention, the consumption of meat decreased while that of vegetables rose by up to 90%. Humans consumed roughly the same amount of salt throughout the agricultural era that their agrarian forebears did (MacGregor & Wardener., 1998). The development of the refrigerator, however, eliminated the necessity for NaCl as a diet preserving. Intake of NaCl has been reducing, nevertheless with the current sharp rise in the usage of highly salted processed diets, sodium chloride has begun to rise and is now roughly 9–12 gram per day in the majority of the world's countries (I. C. R. G., 1988).

The majority of table salt that is sold for consumption includes additives. Different countries use different levels of additives. Iodized table salt has greatly lowered the illnesses associated with iodine shortage. Iodine is an essential mineral for humans. The majority of the foods we eat contain salt. However, salt is only found in trace amounts in nutrients that are present in nature including fruits, meats, and vegetables. Compared to plant tissues, animal tissues such as meat, blood, and milk have a higher NaCl content(David., & Jean., 1981). Within a few hours of the kill, nomads went hunting and consumed the flesh. They do not consume salt with their meals, whereas agriculturalists who mostly eat vegetables and cereals need to add salt to their diets. Recently, a lot of processed meals use a lot of salt, and processed foods now account for more than 75% of daily sodium intake (Wood., & Ralston., 2012).

### **Consumption of salt**

A vital element that promotes the body's healthy neuron and muscle function is sodium. It also contributes to the body's ability to regulate the fluid and water balance on its own. The kidneys must work extremely hard to remove a lot of salt from the body when there is a high dietary salt intake. The CVs is one of the chief organ systems that is vulnerable to the negative properties of consuming high amount of Natruim. High BP is predisposed by excessive dietary sodium (Meneton et al., 2005; He., & MacGregor., 2007). In general, variations in arterial blood pressure correspond to variations in salt consumption. The Yellow Emperor's Classic of Internal Medicine, (Huang Ti Nei Ching Su Wen), written in Chinese in 2698–2598 BC, made the first observation linking dietary salt intake to blood pressure: "therefore, if large amounts of salt are taken, the pulse will stiffen or harden"(Delahaye., 2013). Ambard and Beaujard initially proposed the connection of dietary NaCl consumption and BP in 1904 (Ambard.,1904). For three weeks, they looked at six high blood pressure patients. They employed three different salt types and different diet protein contents. Every day, by measuring the salt content of the diet and urine, salt consumption was calculated. Even though the patients' protein consumption was higher

when the diet had less salt, they entered a negative Natruim equilibrium and their BP decreased. On the other hand, less salt was excreted in the urine when a diet high in salt was consumed, putting the patient in a positive Natruim equilibrium and causing their blood pressure to increase even when they were eating little to no protein. They came to the conclusion that salt was the main factor affecting BP. By limiting salt intake, they had modest effectiveness in lowering blood pressure (Watkin et al.,1950).

### **Salt and Blood pressure**

Over the past several decades, numerous studies have been conducted to determine how salt intake affects blood pressure in humans. Following Kempner's rice diet in 1948, more researchers demonstrated how a low-salt diet might control blood pressure (Watkin et al.,1950). However, it was extremely challenging to get a human's daily salt intake down to less than 1 g. In several parts of the world, regional variations in BP and habitual salt intake have been investigated. An investigation of salt consumption in the Newfoundland region indicated that a county in the island's middle had an average salt intake that ranged amongst 6.7 and 7.3 gram per day. In comparison, NaCl consumption in a rather remote coastal community ranged amongst 8.4 and 8.8 gram per day (Fodor et al., 1973). Parallel variations in the prevalence of hypertension occurred along with this difference in salt consumption. In the inland village, the incidence of hypertension among people aged 55 to 75 was 15%, compared to twenty-seven percent in the seaside community. A comparable body of indication was found amongst Solomon Islanders (Page et al., 1974). Only 1% of the people in those tribes, which were inland and consumed less salt than 2 g per day, had high blood pressure. 3% of the people in 2 societies with daily NaCl consumption amongst three and eight grams had elevated blood pressure. 8% of the people in one tribe, who had a coastal lifestyle and consumed between 9 and 15g of salt per day, had high blood pressure. Studies on migration also show a relation concerning routine NaCl consumption and BP. Increases in BP have been observed in lessons of resident's collections who moved since regions, where people used less amount of sodium chloride to regions, where people used high level of sodium chloride. According to a nicely designed study from Kenya, compared to non-migrants, migrants had higher mean urine Na/K ratios, and this was accompanied by higher systolic blood pressure. (Poulter et al., 1990). Subsequently a few months later, the blood pressure in these migrants increased (6.9/6.2 mmHg for systolic and diastolic), but not in the governor group of non-migrants (Poulter et al., 1985). There is numerous research on the influence of dietary NaCl limit on BP at the community level (Forte et al). calculated nutritional NaCl limit on BP on a population in Portugal, which is infamous for its high salt intake). The experiment was conducted in two districts, each with 800 residents, salt intakes of under twenty-one grams per day, and a thirty percent prevalence of HTN. The reduction of dietary salt intake was the focus of a significant health education campaign in the intervention community (Forte et al., 1989). In one of the societies, cutting NaCl consumption to under twelve grams per day was linked to an extremely important modification in BP. Through the conclusion of the another year, systolic blood pressure in the control community had slightly increased, but systolic and diastolic BP had suggestively decreased in the low salt intake community, with a variance of 13/6 mmHg concerning the two villages. The community as a whole, including normotensives and hypertensive, experienced the decline in blood pressure, and responses did not differ based on age or gender for either men or women. Significantly, those who had the largest decline in BP also tended to have the biggest fall in salt excretion. A

community-based interference platform to lower non-communicable infections included the further continuing experiment, which was conducted in Tianjin, China (Tian et al., 1995).

### **Cardiovascular Disease and Salt**

In attendance a strong proof is present that CVDs is significantly influenced by BP across its range, commencing around 115/75 mmHg (Lewington et al., 2003). A minor reduction in NaCl consumption would lower BP, which might lower the threat of cardiovascular disease. Founded on the decrease in BP observed in randomized studies of taking less amount of NaCl consumption (Cook et al., 2007), According to estimates, cutting back on salt by 6 g/day might lower the risk of stroke and ischemic heart disease (IHD) by 24% & 18%, separately. This could avert thirty- five thousand deaths from ischemic heart disease and stroke annually in the United Kingdom (He., & MacGregor., 2003) and over-all 2.5 million expires. According to a current modeling research of salt intake and mortality around the world, about 1.65 million expires from (CVDs) in 2010 were caused by salt intake over the WHO recommendation of five grams per day. Two out of every five fatalities (40.4%) were premature (occurring before the age of 70) and four out of every five deaths (84.3%) happened in developing nations (He., & MacGregor., 2003).

Reduced risk of CVD is associated with lower salt intake, according to meta-analyses of prospective cohort studies (Strazzullo et al., 2009). A U-shaped connection between salt intake and death from CVD or all causes has been found in a few more recent cohort studies, albeit (Graudal et al., 2014; O'Donnell et al., 2014; Stolarz-Skrzypek et al., 2011).

The fact that the Salt Institute, the public relations arm of the salt industry, promoted these studies has sparked intense debate. These studies, however, suffer from serious methodological shortcomings. Along with several additional articles (Cobb et al., 2014; Whelton et al., 2012; Campbell et al., 2015), from the publications of Science Advisory of the American Heart Association (AHA) (He., & MacGregor., 2015; He et al., 2011), have presented a thorough review of the methodological problems that arise in cohort studies, such as the problems with calculating people's typical salt intake since it fluctuates so much from day to day, residual confounding, and mistakes in salt measurement. These research cannot be used to guide public health salt policy because of methodological issues. Due to the inherent difficulties of performing such trials, there is very little evidence of long-term salt reduction. According to six papers, randomized trials indicated that salt restriction had no advantages and instead increased death or prehospitalization in patients with severe heart failure receiving several medication therapies. A recent meta-analysis of these studies was retracted from the journal Heart after an investigation by the BMJ Publishing Ethics Committee (DiNicolantonio et al., 2012), and another meta-analysis by Taylor et al. was also withdrawn from The Cochrane Library due to the inclusion of the trial in heart failure as well as other practical issues.

A sum of cost-effective readings has demonstrated that cutting back on salt consumption not simply protects the lives, but also cash. In fact, it is only economical ways to lower cardiovascular disease in both advanced and rising nations (He et al., 1998; Ulfat et al., 2022; Joffres et al., 2007; Murray et al., 2003; Polar., & Sturm., 2009; Selmer et al., 2000; Smith-Spangler et al., 2010). e.g, a fresh study in the United State found that even a little drop in NaCl consumption of just ten percent, which might be simply accomplished, as verified in the United Kingdom (He et al., 2012), might avert millions of strokes and heart attacks over the eras of

grown-ups aged forty to eight five, living today and might protect further \$32 billion in medical expenses in the United State (DiNicolantonio et al., 2012). A greater discount in salt consumption could have a positive influence on health and save money (Bibbins-Domingo., 2010). The United Kingdom's NaCl declining efforts, which have been effective in lowering societies of NaCl consumption, have vetoed about 9000 stroke and Ischemic Heart Disease expiries annually and saved the country £1.5 billion in healthcare costs (Council., 2014). For 23 developing nations that are responsible for eighty percent of the burden of chronic illness in the rising world, assessed the effects and costs of initiatives to reduce salt intake and restrict cigarettes (Asaria et al., 2007). They showed that, over the course of ten years, a 15% decrease in the average salt intake of the population might prevent 8.5 million CVD deaths, and a 20% decrease in the prevalence of smoking could prevent 3.1 million CVD fatalities. A persistent frame broadcasting operation to promote nutritional variation indoors and societies along with a charitable decrease in NaCl content by makers of managed nutriments and condiments could result in the moderate decrease in sodium chloride consumption. It was calculated that these salt-reduction programs would cost US\$0.09 per person per year to execute. The annual amount per person for tobacco control, counting both ways, was US dollar zero (Asaria et al., 2007). These data unmistakably show that, in terms of lowering CVD, salt restriction is greater or, at the very least, equally cost-effective as smoke control.

## Conclusion

Numerous studies on global public health have continued to show the harmful effects of a diet high in salt in a variety of racial and gender groups, including the young and old. Government and health organizations have so acknowledged the urgent need for a decrease in daily dietary salt consumption. In the processed food industry, where these foods are known to contribute more than any other food category to dietary salt intake, such a reduction is particularly desirable. Therefore, it is essential that food producers keep working to replace or minimize the salt in these foods. In order to comprehend the consequences of a salt/sodium reduction strategy on product quality and safety, the food technologist must grasp that salt reduction is not a simple operation. Reduced occurrences of cardiovascular disease, stroke, and hypertension should benefit the general community and lessen the strain on public health services as a result of dietary salt reduction. Therefore, it is essential that government programs to inform consumers about the amounts of salt or sodium in particular foods so they can make informed dietary decisions continue. The issue for the food maker is to offer processed meals and other high quality low or reduced sodium product choices to consumers.

## References:

- Alderman, M. H. (2010). Reducing dietary sodium: the case for caution. *JAMA*, 303(5), 448-449.
- Ambard, L. (1904). Causes de l'Hypertension arterielle. *Arch. gén. de méd.*, 1, 520.
- Asaria, P., Chisholm, D., Mathers, C., Ezzati, M., & Beaglehole, R. (2007). Chronic disease prevention: health effects and financial costs of strategies to reduce salt intake and control tobacco use. *The Lancet*, 370(9604), 2044-2053.
- Bibbins-Domingo, K., Chertow, G. M., Coxson, P. G., Moran, A., Lightwood, J. M., Pletcher, M. J., & Goldman, L. (2010). Projected effect of dietary salt reductions on future

- cardiovascular disease. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 362(7), 590-599.
- Campbell, N. R., Lackland, D. T., Niebylski, M. L., & Nilsson, P. M. (2015). Is reducing dietary sodium controversial? Is it the conduct of studies with flawed research methods that is controversial? A perspective from the World Hypertension League Executive Committee. *The Journal of Clinical Hypertension*, 17(2), 85.
- Cobb, L. K., Anderson, C. A., Elliott, P., Hu, F. B., Liu, K., Neaton, J. D., ... & Appel, L. J. (2014). Methodological issues in cohort studies that relate sodium intake to cardiovascular disease outcomes: a science advisory from the American Heart Association. *Circulation*, 129(10), 1173-1186.
- Cook, N. R., Cutler, J. A., Obarzanek, E., Buring, J. E., Rexrode, K. M., Kumanyika, S. K., ... & Whelton, P. K. (2007). Long term effects of dietary sodium reduction on cardiovascular disease outcomes: observational follow-up of the trials of hypertension prevention (TOHP). *Bmj*, 334(7599), 885.
- Council, S. G. (2014). *Maternal and Child Nutrition Guideline*
- David, B., & Jean, R. (1981). *Manual of Nutrition*, London, Her Majesty's Stationery Office, 1981, p37-38.
- Delahaye, F. (2013). Should we eat less salt?. *Archives of cardiovascular diseases*, 106(5), 324-332.
- DiNicolantonio, J. J., Di Pasquale, P., Taylor, R. S., & Hackam, D. G. (2012). Low sodium versus normal sodium diets in systolic heart failure: systematic review and meta-analysis. *Heart*.
- DiNicolantonio, J. J., Di Pasquale, P., Taylor, R. S., & Hackam, D. G. (2012). Low sodium versus normal sodium diets in systolic heart failure: systematic review and meta-analysis. *Heart*.
- Fodor, J. G., Abbott, E. C., & Rusted, I. E. (1973). An epidemiologic study of hypertension in Newfoundland. *Canadian Medical Association Journal*, 108(11), 1365.
- Forte, J. G., Miguel, J. M., Miguel, M. J., De Padua, F., & Rose, G. (1989). Salt and blood pressure: a community trial. *Journal of human hypertension*, 3(3), 179-184.
- Graudal, N., Jürgens, G., Baslund, B., & Alderman, M. H. (2014). Compared with usual sodium intake, low-and excessive-sodium diets are associated with increased mortality: a meta-analysis. *American journal of hypertension*, 27(9), 1129-1137.
- He, F. J., & MacGregor, G. A. (2003). How far should salt intake be reduced?. *Hypertension*, 42(6), 1093-1099.
- He, F. J., & MacGregor, G. A. (2007). Salt, blood pressure and cardiovascular disease. *Current opinion in cardiology*, 22(4), 298-305.
- He, F. J., & MacGregor, G. A. (2015). Salt and sugar: their effects on blood pressure. *Pflügers Archiv-European Journal of Physiology*, 467, 577-586.

- He, F. J., Appel, L. J., Cappuccio, F. P., De Wardener, H. E., & MacGregor, G. A. (2011). Does reducing salt intake increase cardiovascular mortality?. *Kidney international*, 80(7), 696-698.
- He, F. J., Campbell, N. R., & MacGregor, G. A. (2012). Reducing salt intake to prevent hypertension and cardiovascular disease. *Revista Panamericana de Salud Pública*, 32(4), 293-300..
- He, F. J., Markandu, N. D., Sagnella, G. A., & MacGregor, G. A. (1998). Importance of the renin system in determining blood pressure fall with salt restriction in black and white hypertensives. *Hypertension*, 32(5), 820-824.
- Intersalt Cooperative Research Group. (1988). Intersalt: an international study of electrolyte excretion and blood pressure. Results for 24 hour urinary sodium and potassium excretion. *BMJ: British Medical Journal*, 319-328.
- Joffres, M. R., Campbell, N. R., Manns, B., & Tu, K. (2007). Estimate of the benefits of a population-based reduction in dietary sodium additives on hypertension and its related health care costs in Canada. *Canadian Journal of Cardiology*, 23(6), 437-443.
- Kolata, G. (2013). No benefit seen in sharp limits on salt in diet. *The New York Times*, 14.
- Lewington, S., Clarke, R., Qizilbash, N., Peto, R., & Collins, R. (2003). Age-specific relevance of usual blood pressure to vascular mortality. *The Lancet*, 361(9366), 1391-1392.
- MacGregor, G. A., & De Wardener, H. E. (1998). *Salt, diet and health*. Cambridge University Press.
- Meneton, P., Jeunemaitre, X., de Wardener, H. E., & Macgregor, G. A. (2005). Links between dietary salt intake, renal salt handling, blood pressure, and cardiovascular diseases. *Physiological reviews*.
- Murray, C. J., Lauer, J. A., Hutubessy, R. C., Niessen, L., Tomijima, N., Rodgers, A., ... & Evans, D. B. (2003). Effectiveness and costs of interventions to lower systolic blood pressure and cholesterol: a global and regional analysis on reduction of cardiovascular-disease risk. *The Lancet*, 361(9359), 717-725.
- O'Donnell, M., Mente, A., Rangarajan, S., McQueen, M. J., Wang, X., Liu, L., ... & Yusuf, S. (2014). Urinary sodium and potassium excretion, mortality, and cardiovascular events. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 371(7), 612-623.
- Page, L. B., Damon, A., & Moellering Jr, R. C. (1974). Antecedents of cardiovascular disease in six Solomon Islands societies. *Circulation*, 49(6), 1132-1146.
- Polar, K., & Sturm, R. (2009). Potential societal savings from reduced sodium consumption in the US adult population. *American journal of health promotion*, 24(1), 49-57.
- Poulter, N. R., Khaw, K. T., Hopwood, B. E. C., Mugambi, M., Peart, W. S., Rose, G., & Sever, P. S. (1990). The Kenyan Luo migration study: observations on the initiation of a rise in blood pressure. *British Medical Journal*, 300(6730), 967-972.
- Poulter, N. R., Khaw, K. T., Mugambi, M., Peart, W. S., & Sever, P. S. (1985). MIGRATION-

INDUCED CHANGES IN BLOOD PRESSURE: A CONTROLLED LONGITUDINAL STUDY. *Clinical and Experimental Pharmacology and Physiology*, 12(3), 211-216.

- Selmer, R. M., Kristiansen, I. S., Haglerød, A., Graff-Iversen, S., Larsen, H. K., Meyer, H. E., ... & Thelle, D. S. (2000). Cost and health consequences of reducing the population intake of salt. *Journal of Epidemiology & Community Health*, 54(9), 697-702.
- Smith-Spangler, C. M., Juusola, J. L., Enns, E. A., Owens, D. K., & Garber, A. M. (2010). Population strategies to decrease sodium intake and the burden of cardiovascular disease: a cost-effectiveness analysis. *Annals of internal medicine*, 152(8), 481-487.
- Stolarz-Skrzypek, K., Kuznetsova, T., Thijs, L., Tikhonoff, V., Seidlerová, J., Richart, T., ... & European Project on Genes in Hypertension (EPOGH) Investigators. (2011). Fatal and nonfatal outcomes, incidence of hypertension, and blood pressure changes in relation to urinary sodium excretion. *Jama*, 305(17), 1777-1785.
- Strazzullo, P., D'Elia, L., Kandala, N. B., & Cappuccio, F. P. (2009). Salt intake, stroke, and cardiovascular disease: meta-analysis of prospective studies. *Bmj*, 339.
- Taylor, R. S., Ashton, K. E., Moxham, T., Hooper, L., & Ebrahim, S. (2011). Reduced dietary salt for the prevention of cardiovascular disease: a meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials (Cochrane review). *American journal of hypertension*, 24(8), 843-853.
- Tian, H. G., Guo, Z. Y., Hu, G., Yu, S. J., Sun, W., Pietinen, P., & Nissinen, A. (1995). Changes in sodium intake and blood pressure in a community-based intervention project in China. *Journal of Human Hypertension*, 9(12), 959-968.
- Ulfat, W., Mahboob, N., Abed, K., Kamran, A., Azimee, M. A., & Khan, Z. (2022). Preliminary phytochemical screening and ethnomedicinal uses of *Phagnaloniveum*. *Turkish Journal of Computer and Mathematics Education (TURCOMAT)*, 13(2), 769-773.
- Watkin, D. M., Froeb, H. F., Hatch, F. T., & Gutman, A. B. (1950). Effects of diet in essential hypertension: II. Results with unmodified Kempner rice diet in fifty hospitalized patients. *The American journal of medicine*, 9(4), 441-493.
- Whelton, P. K., Appel, L. J., Sacco, R. L., Anderson, C. A., Antman, E. M., Campbell, N., ... & Van Horn, L. V. (2012). Sodium, blood pressure, and cardiovascular disease: further evidence supporting the American Heart Association sodium reduction recommendations. *Circulation*, 126(24), 2880-2889.
- Wood, F. O., & Ralston, R. H. (2012). Salt (NaCl). *Encyclopædia Britannica online Academic Edition*, Encyclopædia Britannica Inc.
- World Health Organization. (2007). Reducing salt intake in populations: report of a WHO forum and technical meeting, 5-7 October 2006, Paris, France.