### **Research Article**

# Estimation of Sodium and Potassium Intake in 24-Hours Urine, Aljouf Region, Northern Saudi Arabia

Saeedi MY<sup>1</sup>, AlMadani AJ<sup>1</sup>, Alsafi YH<sup>1\*</sup>, Arif SH<sup>1</sup>, Mustafa SM<sup>1</sup>, Jamo AI<sup>1</sup>, Alrewally FG<sup>2</sup> and AlBaraka AB<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Ministry of Health, General Directorate of Health Programs and Chronic Diseases, Saudi Arabia <sup>2</sup>Health Affairs in Aljouf Region, Saudi Arabia

\*Corresponding author: Alsafi YH, Ministry of Health, General Directorate of Health Programs and Chronic Diseases, Riyadh 11341 Saudi Arabia

**Received:** April 17, 2017; **Accepted:** May 16, 2017; **Published:** May 26, 2017

#### Abstract

**Background:** Dietary intake of sodium and potassium are important determinants of blood pressure and ischemic heart diseases. This study aimed to determine sodium and potassium intake in the Al-Jouf area in Saudi Arabia, through measurement of 24 hours urinary sodium and potassium excretion.

**Methods:** A cross-sectional study was undertaken with 392 participants aged between 25 and 64 years. Sample size was determined by the World Health Organization protocol for estimating sodium intake. The study was conducted between 7<sup>th</sup> of November 2015 and 24<sup>th</sup> December 2016. It contained a short questionnaire, physical measurement and a 24 hour urine sample.

**Results:** Mean 24 hour sodium chloride excretion was 9.3 g/day (95% CI 9.17- 9.43) with male preponderance 10.8 g/day than female 7.4 g/day. Mean 24 hour potassium excretion was 2.3 g/day (95% CI 2.2- 2.4); with 2.5 g/day and 2.0 g/day for males and females respectively. Sodium intake was higher in males and those who are overweight and obese.

**Conclusion:** The participants have a relatively high sodium and low potassium intake compared to recommended levels. Measures should be taken to raise the awareness of community to reduce dietary sodium and increase potassium intake.

Keywords: Sodium intake; Healthy diet; Risk protection

## Introduction

High levels of dietary sodium (consumed as common salt, sodium chloride) are associated with raised Blood Pressure (BP) and adverse cardiovascular health [1]. Epidemiological studies and clinical trials provide compelling evidence for a detrimental effect of sodium intake on BP among both hypertensive and normotensive individuals [2-7]. In addition to its' effect on BP, excess dietary sodium consumption has been associated directly with Coronary Heart Disease (CHD) [8], and stroke [9].

Despite the wealth of evidence about the unfavorable effects of salt consumption on BP and cardiovascular health, public health efforts to decrease sodium consumption have been limited to few countries [10,11]. Individuals are often unaware of the detrimental effects of salt on health and the Eastern Mediterranean region is not an exception where the majority of salt consumed is hidden in processed foods [12].

Both observational and experimental data support an independent and positive relationship between sodium intake and blood pressure, most clearly among hypertensive populations [13–15]. Potassium intake, on the other hand, has been inversely related to blood pressure [16,17]. Hypertension is a strong predictor of Cardiovascular Disease (CVD), especially stroke; inappropriate intake of sodium and potassium is likely to be associated with increased cardiovascular morbidity and mortality [18].

This study aimed to measure24-hour urinary sodium and potassium excretion among residents of Al-Jouf region, northern Saudi Arabia to estimate average intake of sodium and potassium. As a result this research aims to generate evidence-based public health interventions to reduce sodium intake and thereby decrease the burden of cardiovascular diseases.

#### **Materials and Methods**

This is a descriptive cross-sectional, community-based study. It was conducted in Aljouf region in the northern part of Saudi Arabia, with a population of about 440,000. The study was conducted between 7<sup>th</sup> of November 2015 and 24<sup>th</sup> December 2016.

Sample size was determined by the World Health Organization protocol for estimating sodium intake [19]. Stratification by age and sex was done for two groups (25-44 and 45-64). Consulting the sample size matrix provided by the WHO, the sample size was 98 people per age and sex stratum, this totaled to 392 participants required for all the four age and sex strata (rounded to 400).

The participants were selected from Primary Health Care (PHC) Centers data base. Twenty PHC centers were selected randomly from the region, from each center 20 participants randomly selected from its database. Participants were contacted to participate voluntarily in the study; those who refused were replaced from the database randomly until the required sample was completed. The study protocol was approved by the National Ethics Review Committee Ministry of Health. Informed consent was obtained from every participant before conducting interviews or collecting urine. Participants with history of heart or kidney failure, stroke, liver diseases, on diuretics, pregnant were excluded.

Citation: Saeedi MY, AlMadani AJ, Alsafi YH, Arif SH, Mustafa SM, Jamo AI, et al. Estimation of Sodium and Potassium Intake in 24-Hours Urine, Aljouf Region, Northern Saudi Arabia. Chronic Dis Int. 2017; 4(1): 1026.

#### Alsafi YH

#### % Characteristic No 213 56 2% Male Gender (n=379) Female 166 43.8% 25-44 293 77.3% Age group (n=379) 45-64 86 22.7% Normal (< 24.9) 86 22.4% BMI Overweight (25-29.9) 148 38.5% (n=384) 150 Obese (>30) 39.1% normal 292 77.0% RP Pre-hypertension 56 14.8% (n=379) hypertension 31 8.2% Primary education, or less 68 17.4% Educational level Secondary general 139 35.6% (n=390) 183 46.9% Higher education, university 202 51.9% Government employee Occupation 7 5% Non- government employee 29 (n=389) Others 158 1.5%

Table 1: Baseline characteristics of the study population.

A questionnaire on Knowledge, Attitudes and Behavior (KAB) regarding Dietary Salt, adapted from WHO-EMRO protocol on how to obtain measures of population levels sodium intake in 24-hour urine samples [19].The questionnaire was translated into Arabic language and validated.

Physical measurements including height, weight, waist circumference, and blood pressure were recorded following standardized methods. Blood pressure (BP) was measured three times by electronic sphygmomanometer (Omron Corporation, Japan) and the average of the three recordings was calculated as used for analysis. Participants were considered hypertensive if their average systolic BP was >140 mmHg or diastolic BP was >90mmHgor if they had a prior diagnosis of hypertension; and/or if they were receiving medication. Pre-hypertensive were considered if their systolic BP ranges between 120-139 and diastolic BP 80-89 mmHg [20].

The Interviewers supplied participants with the equipment needed for urine collection and gave clear instructions about urine collection for 24-hours as per WHO guideline [19]. Three 10 ml aliquots of urine were delivered to central Laboratory for analysis. The 24-hour urine collections were assessed for completeness using creatinine excretion in relation to weight (i.e. the creatinine coefficient=creatinine [mg/ day]/body weight [kg]). Creatinine coefficients of 14.4 to 33.6 in men and 10.8 to 25.2 in women were classified as indicating an acceptable 24-hours urine collection [21]. Only samples within these specified ranges were subjected to statistical analysis. The samples were

**Austin Publishing Group** 

 Table 3: Comparison for 24-hour urinary sodium excretion (mmol/day).

		Ν	Mean	Std. Deviation	P value	
Gender	Males	104	188.3	83.2	0.000	
	Females	83	127.9	71.1	0.000	
Age group	25-44	137	160.6	84.9	640	
	45-64	35	167.9	80.1	.049	
BMI	normal weight	44	131.5	76.7		
	Overweight	72	160.0	86.7	.002 (normal weight VS. obese)	
	Obese	70	181.4	79.9		
Blood pressure	Normal	140	154.1	81.8		
	Pre hypertensive	23	177.9	76.6	.355	
	Hypertensive	16	171.6	92.7		



	Males		Females		Total	
	r	P-value	r	P-value	r	P-value
Age (years)	056	.580	.136	.220	.050	.506
BMI (kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	.258	.008	.349	.001	.317	.000
Waist circumference (cm)	.290	.004	.068	.549	.285	.000
Systolic (mmHg)	.188	.102	096	.388	.080	.289
Diastolic (mmHg)	.096	.351	.139	.210	.105	.162
Potassium (mmol/d)	.446	.000	.473	.000	.506	.000

tested by an automated chemistry analyzer architect c4000 (Abbott Diagnostics, USA).

Data analyses were performed using SPSS, version 21.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). Categorical variables were summarized using proportions and continuous variables using mean +SD. Comparisons between subgroups were done by using student t-test and one way Anova. Linear regression was used to test the association between sodium excretion and some selected continuous variables. A P-value of <0.05 was considered statistically significant.

#### **Results**

Characteristics of the study participants are shown in (Table 1). It showed that both genders participated in the study. Two hundred ninety three (77%) were under 45 years of age and 298 (77.6%) were overweight or obese.

Based on the Knowledge and practice questionnaire, 79.5% of respondents admitted that salt consumption has harmful effect on health. The practice of adding salt to food at table and cooking were (201) 53.6%. Furthermore, 77% of respondents understand the

Table 2: Mean 24 hours urinary sodium, Sodium Chloride and potassium execration.

	24 hours urinary grams Sodium execration		24 hours urinary gran execratio	ns Sodium Chloride on(SD)	24 hours urinary grams Potassium execration		Sodium: potassium
	Mean (SD)	CI	Mean (SD)	CI	Mean (SD)	CI	ratio
Males (n=104)	4.3 (1.9)	3.9 – 4.7	10.8(4.8)	10.4 -11.2	2.5 (1.1)	2.3 – 2.7	1.7
Females (n=83)	2.9 (1.6)	2.6 - 3.2	7.4 (4.1)	7.1-7.8	2.0 (0.8)	1.8 – 2.2	1.5
Total (n=187)	3.7 (0.9)	3.6 - 3.8	9.3 (2.2)	9.17-9.43	2.3 (1.0)	2.2 - 2.4	1.6

importance of lowering salt/sodium intake.

Table 2 shows the analysis of187 (47.9%) sample with adequate creatinine coefficient. The mean 24 hours-urinary sodium excretion was 3.7 grams/day (SD 0.9), and it was significantly higher in male 4.3 (SD 1.9) than in female 2.9 (SD 1.6) grams/day. The mean urinary Sodium Chloride excretion was 9.3 (SD 2.2) grams per day; males had higher levels than females. Mean potassium excretion was 2.3 (SD 1.0) grams/day with 2.5 (SD 1.1) and 2 (SD 0.8) grams/day for males and females respectively. The mean sodium-to-potassium ratio was 1.6 in the whole group and 1.7 and 1.5 in males and females, respectively.

While comparing mean urinary sodium excretion by gender (Table 3), males showed significantly higher excretion than females (188.3 *versus.* 127.9 mmol/day – p value = 0.000). The mean urinary sodium excretion was significantly higher among obese individuals compared to those with normal BMI (181.4 *versus.* 131.4 – p value = 0.002). There was no significant association between 24 urinary sodium excretion age and blood pressure status.

Table 4 shows the correlation with parameters such age, BMI, waist circumference, systolic and diastolic blood pressure and potassium excretion. The result revealed positive correlations with BMI (r = 0.317- p value = 0.000), waist circumference (r = 0.285- p value = 0.000) and potassium excretion (r = 0.506 – p value = 0.000)

#### **Discussion**

Sodium intake of different populations around the world varies markedly. The report of a joint WHO/FAO Expert Consultation on 'Diet, Nutrition and the Prevention of Chronic Diseases' recommends that sodium intake for adults should be <85 mmol/day (2g/d) [22]. The normal (physiological) requirement for sodium is between 0.1 and 1.0 g (2.5 g salt) daily [23]. Excessive sodium intake is significantly associated with hypertension, which leads to cardiovascular diseases, such as Ischemic Heart Diseases and stroke. One of the main causes of hypertension is high sodium intake [24]

The 24-hour urine collection method is considered to be the most reliable, as most of the sodium and potassium a person consumes is excreted into the urine, as long as there is no external loss due to disease [25]. Furthermore, many subjects are not willing to collect their urine for a whole day; one report found

The rate of unsuccessful collection is about 40% [26] The unsuccessful collection rate in our study was 52%.

The result of this study showed that the sodium intake was in excess of the current recommended limits. According to the WHO recommends an intake of sodium is no more than 5 g of sodium chloride or 2 g of sodium per day, while the *Institute of Medicine* IOM recommends that adults should not consume more than 2.3 g of sodium per day [27-28].

This was accompanied by low potassium intake, which is reflected in sodium-to-potassium ratio above 1.0 for males and females. This study reported sodium excretion of (3700 mg/day) similar to studies conducted in Iran (3652) mg/day) and the Eastern Region of Saudi Arabia [29,30].However, there are other studies which resulted in lower excretion such as, United Kingdom (3240 mg/ day), New Zealand (3386 mg/day) and Australia (3120mg/day) [3132]. This is likely to relate to the changing dietary habits in the Saudi community in recent years, including the practice of eating out, and the consumption of highly processed food and high-energy snacks. All these dietary habits were found to be associated with high dietary salt intake [33].

Our study, like others has shown that the daily urinary sodium excretion is lower in women than in men [34]. There was a positive correlation between sodium excretion and BMI, waist circumference and potassium excretion [35].

There was no correlation between hypertension and sodium intake in our data. This could be explained by the cross-sectional design of the study, other studies using cross-sectional designs also failed to detect such relationship. In contrast, longitudinal studies found that the risk of developing hypertension was increased among individuals with high salt intake [30].

This study has highlighted the problem of high sodium intake in the Aljouf region, analogous with findings in the Eastern region of Saudi Arabia [29]. Therefore, the issue of high salt consumption in the country needs to be addressed in order to reduce morbidity and mortality from cardiovascular disease. This could be addressed through Public Health initiatives to limit salt consumption in tandem with government and industry initiatives to reduce the salt content of processed foods.

#### Recommendation

It is recommended that the study is repeated in other regions of the Kingdom to determine whether high sodium intake is a nationwide issue. Furthermore, it is recommended that a comprehensive public health program is implemented to reduce dietary sodium intake and increase potassium intake, by targeting both the public and food industry.

It is recommended that Primary Health Care centers have to strengthen health promotion programs regarding sodium intake.

#### Acknowledgement

The authors gratefully acknowledge the staff in PHC centers and central laboratory in Health Directorate in Aljouf region for facilitating the study.

#### References

- Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation (IHME). The Global Burden of Disease: Generating Evidence, Guiding Policy. University of Washington: Seattle, WA, USA. 2013.
- Webster JL, Dunford EK, Hawkes C, Neal BC. Salt reduction initiatives around the world. J. Hypertension. 2011; 29: 1043–1050.
- Elliott P, Walker LL, Little MP, Blair-West JR, Shade RE, Lee DR, et al. Change in salt intake affects blood pressure of chimpanzees: implications for human populations. Circulation. 2007; 116: 1563–1568.
- Guideline: Sodium intake for adults and children. Geneva: World Health Organization. 2012.
- Powles J, Fahimi S, Micha R, Khatibzadeh S, Shi P, Ezzati M, et al. Global, regional and national sodium intakes in 1990 and 2010: A systematic analysis of 24 hour urinary sodium excretion and dietary surveys worldwide. BMJ Open. 2013; 3: e003733.
- Follow-up to the Political Declaration of the High-level Meeting of the General Assembly on the Prevention and Control of Non-communicable Diseases:

#### Alsafi YH

#### **Austin Publishing Group**

World Health Organization. The Sixty-sixth World Health Assembly. 2013.

- World Health Organization. From burden to "best buys": Reducing the economic impact of NCDs in low- and middle-income countries. World Economic Forum: Geneva, Switzerland. 2011.
- Nancy RC, Jeffrey AC, Eva O, Julie EB, Kathryn M R, Shiriki K K, et al. Long term effects of dietary sodium reduction on cardiovascular disease outcomes: observational follow-up of the Trials of Hypertension Prevention (TOHP). 2007; 334: 885.
- He FJ, Brinsden HC, MacGregor GA. Salt reduction in the United Kingdom: A successful experiment in public health. Journal of Human Hypertension. 2014; 28: 345–352.
- He FJ, Pombo-Rodrigues S, Macgregor GA. Salt reduction in England from 2003 to 2011: Its relationship to blood pressure, stroke and ischemic heart disease mortality. BMJ; Open. 2014; 4:e004549.
- 11. Gilbert PA, Heiser G. Salt and health: the CASH and BPA perspective. Nutrition Bulletin. 2005; 30: 62–69.
- Brown IJ, Tzoulaki I, Candeias V, Elliott P. Salt intakes around the world: implications for public health. Int J Epidemiol. 2009; 38: 791-813.
- 13. World health statistics 2014. World Health Organization.
- Graudal NA, Hubeck-Graudal T, Jurgens G. Effects of low sodium diet versus. high sodium diet on blood pressure, renin, aldosterone, catecholamines, cholesterol, and triglyceride. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2011; 11: CD004022.
- Strazzullo P, D'Elia L, Kandala NB, Cappuccio FP. Salt intake, stroke, and cardiovascular disease: meta-analysis of prospective studies. BMJ. 2009; 339: b4567.
- Stolarz-Skrzypek K, Kuznetsova T, Thijs L, Tikhonoff V, Seidlerová J, Richart T, et al. Fatal and nonfatal outcomes, incidence of hypertension and blood pressure changes in relation to urinary sodium excretion. JAMA. 2011; 305: 1777-1785.
- Campbell N, Correa-Rotter R, Neal B, Cappuccio FP. New evidence relating to the health impact of reducing salt intake. Nutr Metab Cardiovasc Dis. 2011; 21: 617-619.
- Taylor RS, Ashton KE, Moxham T, Hooper L, Ebrahim S. Reduced dietary salt for the prevention of cardiovascular disease. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2011; 7: CD009217.
- WHO-EMRO protocol on how to obtain measures of population level sodium intake in 24-h urine samples (WHO Collaborating Centre for Nutrition of the University of Warwick, UK for WHO-EMRO Region). 2013.
- Ministry of Health Saudi Arabia. The National Guidelines for Management of Cardiometabolic Risk Factors in Primary Health Care. 1<sup>st</sup> ed. Riyadh: 2014; 21.
- 21. Liu L, Ikeda K, Yamori Y. Inverse relationship between urinary markers of animal protein intake and blood pressure in Chinese: results from the WHO cardiovascular diseases and alimentary comparison (CARDIAC) study. Int J Epidemiol. 2002; 31: 227-233.

- Diet, nutrition and the prevention of chronic diseases. Report of a joint WHO/ FAO expert consultation, Technical Report Series (916) Geneva: 2003.
- Oyinlola O, Samuel O, Yen-Fu C, Richard JL. Salt intakes in sub-Saharan Africa: a systematic review and meta-regression Population Health Metrics. Published online. 2016; 14: 1.
- Lee J, Park S. Consumer attitudes, barriers, and meal satisfaction associated with sodium-reduced meal intake at worksite cafeterias. Nutrition Research and Practice. 2015; 9: 644-649.
- Holbrook JT, Patterson KY, Bodner JE, Douglas LW, Veillon C, Kelsay JL, et al. Sodium and potassium intake and balance in adults consuming selfselected diets. Am J Clin Nutr. 1984; 40: 786-793.
- 26. Tanaka T, Okamura T, Miura K, KadowakiT, UeshimaH, NakagawaH, et al. A simple method to estimate populational 24-h urinary sodium and potassium excretion using a casual urine specimen. Journal of Human Hypertension. 2002: 16: 97-103.
- 27. Strategies to monitor and evaluate population sodium consumption and sources of sodium in the diet. Report of a joint technical meeting convened by WHO and the Government of Canada. Geneva, World Health Organization. 2010.
- Institute of Medicine of the National Academies. Strategies to reduce sodium intake in the United States. Washington DC, National Academy Press. 2010.
- Alkhunaizi AM, Al Jishi HA, Al Sadah ZA. Salt intake in Eastern Saudi Arabia. Eastern Mediterranean Health Journal. 2013; 19: 915-918.
- Mirzaei M, Soltani M, Namayandeh M, GharahiGhehiN. Sodium and Potassium Intake of Urban Dwellers: Nothing Changed in Yazd, Iran. J HEALTH POPUL NUTR. 2014; 32: 111-117.
- McLean R, Edmonds J, Williams S, Mann J, Skeaff S. Balancing Sodium and Potassium: Estimates of Intake in a New Zealand Adult Population Sample. Nutrients. 2015; 7: 8930-8938.
- Nowson C, Lim K, Grimes C, O'Halloran S, Land MA, Webster J et al. Dietary Salt Intake and Discretionary Salt Use in Two General Population Samples in Australia: 2011 and 2014. Nutrients. 2015; 7: 10501–10512.
- 33. Fodor JG, Whitmore B, Leenen F, Larochelle P. Lifestyle modifications to prevent and control hypertension. 5. Recommendations on dietary salt. Canadian Hypertension Society, Canadian Coalition for High Blood Pressure Prevention and Control, Laboratory Centre for Disease Control at Health Canada, Heart and Stroke Foundation of Canada. CMAJ. 1999; 160: S29-S34.
- Xu j,Wang M,Chen Y, Zhen B, Li J, Luan W *et al.* Estimation of salt intake by 24-hour urinary sodium excretion: a cross-sectional study in Yantai, China. BMC Public Health. 2014; 14:136.
- Takase H, Sugiura T, Kimura G, Ohte N, Dohi Y. Dietary Sodium Consumption Predicts Future Blood Pressure and Incident Hypertension in the Japanese Normotensive General Population. J Am Heart Assoc. 2015; 4: e001959.

Chronic Dis Int - Volume 4 Issue 1 - 2017 **ISSN 2379-7983** | www.austinpublishinggroup.com Alsafi et al. © All rights are reserved

Citation: Saeedi MY, AlMadani AJ, Alsafi YH, Arif SH, Mustafa SM, Jamo AI, et al. Estimation of Sodium and Potassium Intake in 24-Hours Urine, Aljouf Region, Northern Saudi Arabia. Chronic Dis Int. 2017; 4(1): 1026.