Peak-to-Mean Power Control in OFDM, Golay Complementary Sequences, and Reed–Muller Codes

James A. Davis
University of Richmond, jdavis@richmond.edu

Jonathan Jedwab

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Abstract—We present a range of coding schemes for OFDM transmission using binary, quaternary, octary, and higher order modulation that give high code rates for moderate numbers of carriers. These schemes have tightly bounded peak-to-mean envelope power ratio (PMEPR) and simultaneously have good error correction capability. The key theoretical result is a previously unrecognized connection between Golay complementary sequences and second-order Reed–Muller codes over alphabets \( \mathbb{Z}_h \). We obtain additional flexibility in trading off code rate, PMEPR, and error correction capability by partitioning the second-order Reed–Muller code into cosets such that codewords with large values of PMEPR are isolated. For all the proposed schemes we show that encoding is straightforward and give an efficient decoding algorithm involving multiple fast Hadamard transforms. Since the coding schemes are all based on the same formal generator matrix we can deal adaptively with varying channel constraints and evolving system requirements.

Index Terms—Code, complementary, envelope, Golay, OFDM, power, Reed–Muller, sequence.

I. THE ENVELOPE POWER PROBLEM IN OFDM TRANSMISSION

Orthogonal frequency-division multiplexing (OFDM) is a method of transmitting data simultaneously over multiple equally spaced carrier frequencies, using Fourier transform processing for modulation and demodulation [10]. The method has been proposed or adopted for many types of radio systems such as wireless local-area networks [2] and digital audio and digital video broadcasting [1], [44]. OFDM offers many well-documented advantages for multicarrier transmission at high data rates, particularly in mobile applications. Specifically, it has inherent resistance to dispersion in the propagation channel [5]. Furthermore, when coding is added it is possible to exploit frequency diversity in frequency-selective fading channels to obtain excellent performance under low signal-to-noise conditions [43]. For these reasons OFDM is often preferable to constant envelope modulation with adaptive equalization (and indeed is arguably less complex to implement [32]).

The principal difficulty with OFDM is that when the sinusoidal signals of the \( n \) carriers add mostly constructively the peak envelope power is as much as \( n \) times the mean envelope power. If the peak envelope power is subject to a design or regulatory limit then this has the effect of reducing the mean envelope power allowed under OFDM relative to that allowed under constant envelope modulation. If battery power is a constraint, as is typically the case with portable equipment, then the power amplifiers required to behave linearly up to the peak envelope power must be operated inefficiently (with considerable backoff from compression). Digital hard limiting of the transmitted signal has been shown to alleviate the problem [29], but only at the cost of spectral sidelobe growth and consequent performance degradation.

This gives a clear motivation to find other ways of controlling the peak-to-mean envelope power ratio (PMEPR) of the transmitted signal. A promising method which has attracted considerable interest, introduced in [28] and developed in [51], is to use block coding to transmit across the carriers only those polyphase sequences with small PMEPR. As originally described, this entails exhaustive search to identify the best sequences and requires large look-up tables for encoding and decoding. Several authors, for example [16], [52], have proposed simpler implementations of this method using systematic (or at least constrained) methods of coding. Nonetheless, [16] declares that “... there are no known rules concerning selection of the allowed signals [having PMEPR below a certain threshold] in a structured way.” Moreover, these schemes do not address the problem of error correction at all. An alternative method [26] instead takes the transmitted codewords from a coset of a linear error-correcting code, choosing the coset representative or “mask vector” by computationally intensive search in order to reduce the PMEPR. In this way the error correction properties are assured but the appropriate choice of linear code and coset representative for optimal PMEPR remains an open problem.

In this paper we present a highly flexible coding scheme for binary, quaternary, octary, and higher order modulation which incorporates aspects of both of the above methods. It uses theoretical considerations to guarantee low PMEPR and simultaneously to provide good error correction capability. It allows simple changes to properties such as code rate, PMEPR, and error correction capability to deal adaptively with varying channel constraints, and provides a clear evolution path for physical systems from binary to quaternary to octary modulation. In all cases, we provide straightforward and efficient algorithms for encoding and decoding. The presented coding schemes are particularly suited to applications requiring tight control of PMEPR for which the number of carriers is no more than around 32 (in which case the resulting
code rate is high). An example of such an application is a wireless local-area network (LAN) employing low-cost portable communicating devices. For this application the cost constraint limits the amount of processing and, therefore, the number of carriers, while the negative consequences of even an occasional high-power signal strongly favor tight envelope power control.

The remainder of the paper is structured as follows. Section II motivates the use of Golay sequences (i.e., sequences belonging to Golay complementary pairs) as a first solution to the envelope power problem in OFDM. We explicitly determine a large class of Golay sequences over $\mathbb{Z}_2^n$, of length $2^n$ in terms of generalized Boolean functions. Section III shows that in the binary case $h = 1$, these Golay sequences occur as cosets of the first-order Reed–Muller code within the second-order Reed–Muller code. This connection between Golay sequences and Reed–Muller codes has not previously been recognized, and is a key result leading to the practical and flexible OFDM coding schemes of this paper. For the nonbinary cases $h > 1$ we introduce two new linear codes over the ring $\mathbb{Z}_{2^h}$, as generalizations of the Reed–Muller code and demonstrate a corresponding connection with the nonbinary Golay sequences previously determined. We establish the minimum Hamming and Lee distance of these new codes as measures of their error correction capability. Section IV proposes an OFDM coding scheme, based on the Golay sequences of Section II, involving cosets of one generalized Reed–Muller code within another. We then show that by varying the set of cosets of the first generalized Reed–Muller code within the second we can obtain a much more general range of solutions to the envelope power problem, not necessarily restricted to Golay sequences. In this way we can make tradeoffs between PMEPR, code rate, and error correction capability. The essential observation is that partitioning the second-order Reed–Muller code into cosets in this way appears naturally to isolate those codewords with large values of PMEPR. Section V presents highly efficient decoding algorithms for all of the proposed coding schemes. These algorithms apply the fast Hadamard transform repeatedly in a novel manner. For background on classical coding theory, see [30] or [31].

Some of the results of this paper, in particular the connection between Golay sequences and second-order Reed–Muller codes, were announced without proof in [13]. There is limited overlap between the results in Sections II and III of this paper and recent independent work on OFDM. Translated into the notation of the present paper, van Nee [35] essentially shows how to obtain recursively a subset of the Golay sequences of Corollary 4 corresponding to $m$ cosets of RM$_2$ $(1, m)$, and Ochiai and Imai [37] do likewise but for a subset corresponding to a single coset rather than to $m$. In contrast Corollaries 6 and 9 explicitly identify $m^2/2$ such cosets within a specified linear code, and Theorem 3 and Corollary 5 show how to arrange the identified sequences into Golay complementary pairs. Moreover, [35] and [37] do not make the crucial connection between Golay sequences and Reed–Muller codes and, consequently, do not identify the range of coding options presented here and their attendant advantages. We also note that the claim of [37], that in the announcement [13] “... no specific method is given to generalize from a binary sequence into $M$-ary case,” is incorrect for any value $M = 2^h$; in fact, the principal example of [37], contained in (16) and (18) of that paper, consists of the quaternary length 8 sequences

$$2(x_1x_2 + x_2x_3) + \sum_{i=1}^{3} c_kx_k + c, \quad \text{for } c, c_k \in \mathbb{Z}_4$$

which occur as a special case of [13, Theorem 2].

II. GOLAY SEQUENCES

We represent the value assigned to the $i$th carrier of an OFDM system during a given symbol period as an element $a_i$ of the ring $\mathbb{Z}_H$ for some $H \geq 2$, where $i = 0, 1, \cdots, n-1$. In each symbol period, the $\mathbb{Z}_H$-ary sequence $(a_0, a_1, \cdots, a_{n-1})$ across the $n$ carriers forms a codeword. Codewords in successive symbol periods belong to a code whose alphabet is $\mathbb{Z}_H$, and in the cases $H = 2, 4,$ or 8, the code is called binary, quaternary, or octary, respectively. In signal processing, it is more common to consider the sequence of complex modulated values $(\xi_0, \xi_1, \cdots, \xi_{n-1})$, where $\xi = \exp(2\pi\sqrt{-1}/H)$ is a primitive $H$th root of unity. (In some implementations this sequence is multiplied by the constant $\exp(\pi\sqrt{-1}/H)$.) This modulation is called $H$-phase shift keying, which in the cases $H = 2$ or 4 is also known as binary phase-shift keying or quadrature phase-shift keying, respectively.

The transmitted OFDM signal is the real part of the complex envelope

$$s(t) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \xi^{a_i(t)+Hft}$$

for some constant $f$, where $f_i$ is the frequency of the $i$th carrier and $a_i(t)$ is constant over a symbol period. In order to ensure orthogonality, the carrier frequencies are related by

$$f_i = f + i\Delta f$$

for some constant $f$, where $\Delta f$ is an integer multiple of the OFDM symbol rate. The instantaneous envelope power of the signal is the real-valued function $P(t) = |s(t)|^2$, and substitution from (1) and (2) gives

$$P(t) = \sum_{i,j} \xi^{a_i(t)+H(j-i)\Delta f}$$

Let the constant value of $a_i(t)$ over a symbol period such as $0 \leq \Delta ft \leq 1$ be $a_i$, and call the resulting continuous function $P(t)$ over the symbol period the envelope power $P_a(t)$ of the sequence $a = (a_0, a_1, \cdots, a_{n-1})$. Then by putting $j = i + u$ in the expression for $P_a(t)$ given by (3) we obtain

$$P_a(t) = n + \sum_{u=0}^{n-1} \sum_i \xi^{a_i-a_{i+u}-Hu\Delta ft}$$

where here and in (5) below the summations are understood to be over only those integer values for which both $i$ and $i+u$ lie within $\{0, 1, \cdots, n-1\}$. Since the aperiodic autocorrelation of $a$ at displacement $u$ is by definition

$$C_a(u) = \sum_i \xi^{a_i-a_{i+u}}$$

valid
we can rewrite (4) as

\[ P_a(t) = n + \sum_{u=0}^{n-1} C_a(u) e^{-i H u \Delta f t}. \]  

(6)

The peak envelope power (PEP) of the sequence \( a \) is the supremum over a symbol period of \( P_a(t) \). From (5) and (6), the mean envelope power of any sequence \( a \) over a symbol period is \( n \), and so the peak-to-mean envelope power ratio (PMEPR) of \( a \) is the ratio \( \text{PEP}/n \). Alternative names for PMEPR are peak-to-average power ratio [33] and peak factor [47]; the square root of the PMEPR is called the crest factor [7]. A PMEPR of \( \epsilon \) is often expressed as \( \epsilon \) (dB). From (6) we see that

\[ P_a(t) \leq n + \sum_{u=0}^{n-1} |C_a(u)| \leq n + 2 \sum_{u=1}^{n-2} (n-u) = n^2 \]

so the PEP of any sequence \( a \) is at most \( n^2 \) and the PMEPR is at most \( n \). (See [47] for a similar argument giving a general upper bound on the PEP of \( a \) in terms of \( C_a(u) \), and [17] for the derivation of a lower bound on the PMEPR of \( a \) from (6).)

The upper bound of \( n \) for PMEPR is attained by the sequence \( a = (0, 0, \cdots, 0) \), which can occur in an uncoded OFDM system. But by restricting the set of allowed sequences to Golay sequences we can reduce the PMEPR from its maximum value of \( n \) to at most \( \epsilon \), as we now show.

**Definition 1:** Let

\[ a = (a_0, a_1, \cdots, a_{n-1}) \]

and

\[ b = (b_0, b_1, \cdots, b_{n-1}) \]

where \( a_i, b_i \in \mathbb{Z}_2 \). The sequences \( a \) and \( b \) are called a Golay complementary pair over \( \mathbb{Z}_2 \) of length \( n \) if \( C_a(u) + C_b(u) = 0 \) for each \( u \neq 0 \). Any sequence which is a member of a Golay complementary pair is called a Golay sequence.

**Theorem 2:** The PMEPR of any Golay sequence is at most \( \epsilon \).

**Proof:** Let \( a \) and \( b \) be a Golay complementary pair, so that by definition \( C_a(u) + C_b(u) = 0 \) for each \( u \neq 0 \). Then from (6), \( P_a(t) = P_b(t) = 2n \) and since \( P_a(t) = |s_a(t)|^2 \geq 0 \) we deduce \( P_a(t) \leq 2n \). The result follows from the definition of PMEPR.

Theorem 2 was obtained by Popović [41] (in terms of the crest factor of the real-valued signal envelope) by generalizing earlier work of Boyd [7]. Golay complementary pairs over \( \mathbb{Z}_2 \) were introduced by Golay [18], [19] in connection with infrared multislit spectrometry and have since found application in fields such as optical time-domain reflectometry [34] and acoustic surface-wave encoding [48]. They are known to exist for all lengths \( n = 2^m 10^s 3^t 6^w \), where \( \alpha, \beta, \gamma \geq 0 \) [49], but do not exist for any length \( n \) having a prime factor congruent to 3 modulo 4 [14]. For a survey of results on nonbinary Golay complementary pairs, see [15, Ch. 13]. We note that a Golay complementary pair over \( \mathbb{Z}_2 \) is equivalent to a pair of “complex Golay sequences,” as defined in [12].

Henceforth we impose the restriction \( n = 2^m \) so that the sampled OFDM signal corresponding to the continuous function (1) can be easily generated using the inverse fast Fourier transform. We also assume that \( H = 2^h \) for some \( h \geq 1 \) and then in each symbol period the OFDM signal contains exactly \( h \) code bits per carrier. We now give an explicit form for a large class of Golay complementary pairs over \( \mathbb{Z}_{2^h} \) of length \( 2^m \), and deduce the form of a set of Golay sequences. We first require some notation.

A **Boolean function** is a function \( f \) from

\[ \mathbb{Z}_{2^h}^n = \{(x_1, x_2, \cdots, x_m) | x_i \in \{0, 1\} \} \]

to \( \mathbb{Z}_2 \). We regard each 0–1 variable \( x_i \) as itself being a Boolean function \( f_i(x_1, x_2, \cdots, x_m) = x_i \) and consider the \( 2^m \) monomials

\[ 1, x_1, x_2, \cdots, x_m, x_1 x_2, x_1 x_3, \cdots, x_{m-1} x_m, \cdots, x_1 x_2 \cdots x_m. \]  

(7)

Any Boolean function \( f \) can be uniquely expressed as a linear combination over \( \mathbb{Z}_2 \) of these monomials, where the coefficient of each monomial belongs to \( \mathbb{Z}_2 \) [31]. The resulting expression for \( f \) is called the algebraic normal form [42]. We specify a sequence \( f \) of length \( 2^m \) corresponding to \( f \) by listing the values taken by \( f(x_1, x_2, \cdots, x_m) \) as \( (x_1, x_2, \cdots, x_m) \) ranges over all its \( 2^m \) values in lexicographic order. In other words, if \( (i_1, i_2, \cdots, i_m) \) is the binary representation of the integer \( i = \sum_{j=1}^{m} i_j 2^{m-j} \) then the \( i \)th element of \( f \) (numbering the leftmost element as 0) is \( f(i_1, i_2, \cdots, i_m) \). For example, for \( m = 3 \) we have

\[ f = \left( f(0,0,0), f(0,0,1), f(0,1,0), f(0,1,1), f(1,0,0), f(1,0,1), f(1,1,0), f(1,1,1) \right) \]

and so \( 1 = (11111111), x_1 = (00001111), x_2 = (00101011), x_3 = (01010101), \) and \( x_1 x_2 + x_2 x_3 = (00001001) \).

We define a generzalized Boolean function to be a function \( f \) from \( \mathbb{Z}_{2^h}^n \) to \( \mathbb{Z}_{2^h} \), where \( h \geq 1 \). It is straightforward to modify the proof of the algebraic normal form result stated above to show that any such function can be uniquely expressed as a linear combination over \( \mathbb{Z}_{2^h} \) of the monomials (7), where the coefficient of each monomial belongs to \( \mathbb{Z}_{2^h} \). As above, we specify a sequence \( f \) of length \( 2^m \) corresponding to the generalized Boolean function \( f \). For example, for \( h = 2 \) and \( m = 3 \) we have \( 3 x_1 = (00000333), 2 x_1 x_2 x_3 = (00000002), \) and \( x_1 x_2 + 3 x_2 x_3 + 2 \cdot 1 = (22222222) \). (Technically, for such expressions to be valid we must embed the range space \( \mathbb{Z}_{2^h} \) of the monomials (7) in \( \mathbb{Z}_{2^h}^n \).) Henceforth, we shall drop the distinction between a generalized Boolean function and its corresponding sequence, and use the notation \( f \) to refer to both.

With this notation we are now ready to describe the Golay complementary pairs over \( \mathbb{Z}_{2^h} \) of length \( 2^m \).

**Theorem 3:** Let

\[ f(x_1, x_2, \cdots, x_m) = 2^{h-1} \sum_{k=1}^{m-1} x_{\pi(k)} x_{\pi(k+1)} + \sum_{k=1}^{m} c_k x_k \]  

(8)

\[ \pi(1), \pi(2), \cdots, \pi(m) \] is a nonbinary Golay complementary pair over \( \mathbb{Z}_{2^h} \) of length \( 2^m \).
where $\pi$ is a permutation of the symbols $\{1, 2, \cdots, m\}$ and $c_k \in \mathbb{Z}_{2^h}$. Then the sequences

$$a(x_1, x_2, \cdots, x_m) = f(x_1, x_2, \cdots, x_m) + c$$

and

$$b(x_1, x_2, \cdots, x_m) = f(x_1, x_2, \cdots, x_m) + 2^{h-1}x_{\pi(1)} + c'$$

are a Golay complementary pair over $\mathbb{Z}_{2^h}$ of length $2^m$ for any $c, c' \in \mathbb{Z}_{2^h}$.

**Proof:** The case $m = 1$ is easily checked by hand, so assume $m \geq 2$ and fix $u \neq 0$. By the definition of aperiodic autocorrelation (5), $C_a(u) + C_b(u)$ is the sum over $i$ of terms $\xi^{x_i-x_{\pi(i)}} + \xi^{b_i-b_{\pi(i)}}$, where $\xi$ is a primitive $2^h$th root of unity. For a given integer $i$, set $j = i + u$ and let $(i_1, i_2, \cdots, i_m)$ and $(j_1, j_2, \cdots, j_m)$ be the binary representation of $i$ and $j$, respectively. The sequence element $a_i$ is given by $a(i_1, i_2, \cdots, i_m)$, as discussed above, which implies that

$$b_i - a_i = 2^{h-1}i_{\pi(i)} + c' - c. \quad (9)$$

**Case 1:** $j_{\pi(i)} \neq i_{\pi(i)}$. From (9), over $\mathbb{Z}_{2^h}$ we have

$$a_i - a_j - b_i + b_j = 2^{h-1}(j_{\pi(i)} - i_{\pi(i)}) = 2^{h-1}$$

so

$$\xi^{a_i-a_j} \xi^{b_i-b_j} = \xi^{2^{h-1}} = -1,$$

Therefore, $\xi^{a_i-a_j} + \xi^{b_i-b_j} = 0.$

**Case 2:** $j_{\pi(i)} = i_{\pi(i)}$. Since $j \neq i$ we can define $u$ to be the smallest integer for which $j_{\pi(v)} \neq i_{\pi(v)}$. Let $i'$ be the integer whose binary representation

$$(i_1, i_2, \cdots, 1 - i_{\pi(v-1)}, \cdots, i_m)$$

diffs from that of $i$ only in position $i (v-1)$, and similarly let $j'$ have binary representation

$$(j_1, j_2, \cdots, 1 - j_{\pi(v-1)}, \cdots, j_m).$$

By assumption $i_{\pi(v-1)} = j_{\pi(v-1)}$ and so $j' = i' + u$. We have, therefore, defined an invertible map from the ordered pair $(i, j)$ to $(i', j')$, and both pairs contribute to $C_a(u) + C_b(u)$. Now substitution for $i$ and $j'$ in (8) gives

$$f_{j' - i} = 2^{h-1}i_{\pi(v-2)} + 2^{h-1}i_{\pi(v)} + c_{\pi(v-1)} - 2c_{\pi(v-1)}j_{\pi(v-1)}$$

(unless $v = 2$, in which case we just delete terms involving $\pi(v-2)$ and in what follows). Therefore,

$$a_i - a_j - a_{i'} + a_{j'} = 2^{h-1}(j_{\pi(v-2)} - i_{\pi(v-2)})$$

$$+ 2^{h-1}(j_{\pi(v)} - i_{\pi(v)})$$

$$- 2c_{\pi(v-1)}(j_{\pi(v-1)} - i_{\pi(v-1)})$$

$$= 2^{h-1}$$

by the definition of $v$. Then (9) implies that

$$b_i - b_j - b_{i'} + b_{j'} = a_i - a_j - a_{i'} + a_{j'} = 2^{h-1}.$$  

Arguing as in Case 1, we obtain

$$\xi^{a_{i'}-a_j} + \xi^{b_{i'}-b_j} = 0$$

and

$$\xi^{a_i-a_j} + \xi^{b_i-b_j} = 0.$$

Therefore, $(\xi^{a_{i'}-a_j} + \xi^{b_{i'}-b_j}) + (\xi^{a_{i'}-a_j} + \xi^{b_{i'}-b_j}) = 0.$

Combining these cases we see that $C_a(u) + C_b(u)$ comprises zero contributions (as in Case 1), and contributions which sum to zero in pairs (as in Case 2). Therefore, $a(x_1, x_2, \cdots, x_m)$ and $b(x_1, x_2, \cdots, x_m)$ are a Golay complementary pair, by Definition 1.

**Corollary 4:** For any permutation $\pi$ of the symbols $\{1, 2, \cdots, m\}$ and for any $c, c_k \in \mathbb{Z}_{2^h}$

$$a(x_1, x_2, \cdots, x_m) = 2^{h-1} \sum_{k=1}^{m-1} x_{\pi(k)}x'_{\pi(k+1)} + \sum_{k=1}^{m} c_k x_k + c$$

is a Golay sequence over $\mathbb{Z}_{2^h}$ of length $2^m$.

**Corollary 4** explicitly determines $2^h(m+1) \cdot m!/2$ Golay sequences over $\mathbb{Z}_{2^h}$ of length $2^m$ (using the factor $m!/2$ rather than $m!$ because the expression $\sum_{k=1}^{m-1} x_{\pi(k)}x'_{\pi(k+1)}$ is invariant under the mapping $\pi \mapsto \pi'$, where $\pi'(k) = \pi(m + 1 - k)$). Numerical evidence suggests that there are no other Golay sequences over $\mathbb{Z}_{2^h}$ of this length, although we do not have a proof of this. Theorem 3 also shows how to form sets of Golay complementary pairs:

**Corollary 5:** Let

$$f \equiv f(x_1, x_2, \cdots, x_m)$$

$$= 2^{h-1} \sum_{k=1}^{m-1} x_{\pi(k)}x'_{\pi(k+1)} + \sum_{k=1}^{m} c_k x_k$$

where $\pi$ is a permutation of the symbols $\{1, 2, \cdots, m\}$ and $c_k \in \mathbb{Z}_{2^h}$. Then any sequence in the set

$$A = \{ f + c, f + 2^{h-1}(x_{\pi(1)} + x_{\pi(m)}) + c | c \in \mathbb{Z}_{2^h} \}$$

forms a Golay complementary pair over $\mathbb{Z}_{2^h}$ of length $2m$ with any sequence in the set

$$B = \{ f + 2^{h-1}x_{\pi(1)} + c', f + 2^{h-1}x_{\pi(m)} + c' | c' \in \mathbb{Z}_{2^h} \}.$$

**Proof:** Consider a single sequence $q$ of the form $f + c$. By Theorem 3, this sequence forms a Golay complementary pair with each of the $2^h$ sequences $\{ f + 2^{h-1}x_{\pi(1)} + c' | c' \in \mathbb{Z}_{2^h} \}$. Now if $\pi$ is replaced by the permutation $\pi'$ defined by $\pi'(k) = \pi(m + 1 - k)$. $f + c$ is invariant but $f + 2^{h-1}x_{\pi(m)} + c'$ maps to $f + 2^{h-1}x_{\pi(m)} + c'$. Therefore, $a$ also forms a Golay complementary pair with each of the $2^h$ sequences $\{ f + 2^{h-1}x_{\pi(m)} + c' | c' \in \mathbb{Z}_{2^h} \}$. We have shown that $a$ forms a Golay complementary pair with each sequence $b \in B$, and it follows from Definition 1 that for each $u$, every sequence $b \in B$ has the same value of $C_B(\pi)$. By Theorem 3, this sequence forms a Golay complementary pair with each of the $2^h$ sequences $\{ f + 2^{h-1}x_{\pi(1)} + c' | c' \in \mathbb{Z}_{2^h} \}$.

Now if $\pi$ is replaced by the permutation $\pi'$ defined by $\pi'(k) = \pi(m + 1 - k)$, $f + c$ is invariant but $f + 2^{h-1}x_{\pi(1)} + c'$ maps to $f + 2^{h-1}x_{\pi(1)} + c'$. Therefore, $a$ also forms a Golay complementary pair with each of the $2^h$ sequences $\{ f + 2^{h-1}x_{\pi(1)} + c' | c' \in \mathbb{Z}_{2^h} \}$. We have shown that $a$ forms a Golay complementary pair with each sequence $b \in B$, and it follows from Definition 1 that for each $u$, every sequence $b \in B$ has the same value of $C_B(\pi)$. By Theorem 3, this sequence forms a Golay complementary pair with each of the $2^h$ sequences $\{ f + 2^{h-1}x_{\pi(1)} + c' | c' \in \mathbb{Z}_{2^h} \}$.

Similarly, we can show that a single sequence $b$ of the form $f + 2^{h-1}x_{\pi(1)} + c'$ forms a Golay complementary pair with each of the $2^h$ sequences $a \in A$ and that, for each $u$, every sequence $a \in A$ has the same value of $C_A(u)$. Therefore, any sequence $a \in A$ forms a Golay complementary pair with any sequence $b \in B$.

**Corollary 5** explicitly determines $2^{2h+1} \cdot 2^{hm-2} \cdot m!/2$ Golay complementary pairs $\{a, b\}$ over $\mathbb{Z}_{2^h}$ of length $2^m$. It
also suggests a natural partition of the Golay sequences of Corollary 4 into $2^{2m-2} \cdot m! / 2$ classes of size $2^{h+2}$, each class comprising a set $A$ of $2^{h+2}$ sequences of the form $(10)$ and a set $B$ of $2^{h+2}$ sequences of the form $(11)$.

However, the true number of Golay complementary pairs $(a, b)$ over $\mathbb{Z}_{2^h}$ of length $2^h$ can be greater than that calculated above because in some cases $C_{A'}(u) = C_{A'}(v)$, for all $u, v$ for two distinct sets $A$, $A'$ of the form $(10)$. For example, for $h = 2$ and $m = 3$, by Corollary 5 any of the eight sequences in

$$ A = \{ x_1x_2 + x_3x_2 \in \mathbb{Z}_4 \} $$

forms a quaternary Golay complementary pair of length 8 with any sequence in

$$ B = \{ x_1x_2 + x_3x_2 \in \mathbb{Z}_4 \}. $$

Similarly, any one of the eight sequences in

$$ A' = \{ x_1x_2x_3 + x_2x_3 + x_1x_3 + x_2x_3 + c \mid c \in \mathbb{Z}_4 \} $$

forms a Golay complementary pair with any sequence in

$$ B' = \{ x_1x_2x_3 + x_2x_3 + x_1x_3 + x_2x_3 + c' \mid c' \in \mathbb{Z}_4 \}. $$

But in fact direct calculation shows that

$$(C_{A'}(u)u = 0, 1, \ldots, 7) = (C_{A'}(v)u = 0, 1, \ldots, 7)$$

so these 32 sequences collectively give rise to $16^2 = 256$ Golay complementary pairs rather than the expected $2 \cdot 8^2 = 128$.

In 1961, Golay [20] gave an explicit construction for binary Golay complementary pairs of length $2^h$ and later noted [21] that the construction implies the existence of at least $2^{2m+1} \cdot m! / 2$ binary Golay sequences of this length. These results correspond to the binary case $h = 1$ of Theorem 3 and Corollary 4, and indeed our proof of Theorem 3 is modeled on Golay’s original construction [20]. However, the nonbinary cases $h > 1$ of Theorem 3 have not been constructed explicitly elsewhere. Moreover, we shall prove in Section III the new result, announced in [13], that the Golay sequences of Corollary 4 form a subcode of the second-order Reed–Muller code (suitably generalized for nonbinary cases).

Golay [20] also presented a recursive construction for binary Golay complementary pairs involving concatenation and interleaving of sequences. Budišin [8], building on earlier work of Sivaswamy [46], gave a more general recursive construction for Golay complementary pairs and showed that the set of all binary Golay complementary pairs of length $2^h$ obtainable from it coincides with those given explicitly by Golay [20] (as described above). Paterson [38] has shown that the set of all Golay complementary pairs over $\mathbb{Z}_{2^h}$ of length $2^h$ obtainable by Golay’s recursive construction $(h = 1)$ and by Budišin’s $(h \geq 1)$ coincides with those given explicitly in Theorem 3. (Urbanke and Krishnamur [50] also presented results which show that the number of binary Golay sequences of length $2^m$ given by Golay’s recursive construction is $2^{m+1} \cdot m! / 2$. Although we have received a modified version (private communication, July 1998) of this paper which notes a connection between these binary Golay complementary sequences and Reed–Muller codes, the modified manuscript carries a date later than the publication date of our announcement [13].)

We remark that [20] introduced a definition of equivalence of binary Golay complementary pairs that was taken up by later authors, particularly when counting the number of such pairs of small length by computer search. We believe that the underlying structure of Golay complementary pairs over $\mathbb{Z}_{2^h}$ of length $2^m$ is more apparent if this definition, and its obvious generalization for $h > 1$, is not used.

III. REED–MULLER CODES

Binary Reed–Muller codes first appeared in print in 1954 and remain “… one of the oldest and best understood families of codes” [31, p. 370]. They have good error correction properties, provided the block length is not too large, and have the important practical advantage of being easy to decode. The $r$th–order binary Reed–Muller code $RM(r, m)$ of length $2^m$ is generated by the monomials in the Boolean functions $x_i$ of degree at most $r$ [31]. This allows us to restate the binary case $h = 1$ of Corollary 4 as:

**Corollary 6:** Each of the $m! / 2$ cosets of $RM(1, m)$ in $RM(2, m)$ has a coset representative of the form

$$ \sum_{k=1}^{m-1} x_\pi(k) x_\pi(k+1) $$

comprises $2^{m+1}$ binary Golay sequences of length $2^m$, where $\pi$ is a permutation of the symbols $\{1, 2, \ldots, m\}$.

Note that the PMEPR of a sequence depends on the order in which its elements occur, so here and elsewhere we do not adopt the coding theory convention that regards two codes as equivalent if one can be obtained from the other by a permutation of coordinates.

We wish to make an analogous statement to Corollary 6 for the nonbinary cases $h > 1$ of Corollary 4. To do this, we follow the landmark paper [25] and define a linear code over $\mathbb{Z}_H$ of length $n$ to be a subset of $\mathbb{Z}_H^n$ such that the sum of any two codewords is a codeword. Reference [25] demonstrates that defining linear codes in this way, over rings that are not fields, preserves many of the properties of classical codes even though not every element of the code alphabet has a multiplicative inverse. In particular, such a code can be specified in terms of a generator matrix such that the code consists of all distinct linear combinations over $\mathbb{Z}_H$ of the rows of the matrix. We now define two new linear codes over $\mathbb{Z}_{2^h}$ of length $2^m$ in terms of the generalized Boolean functions $x_i$ described in Section II.

**Definition 7:** For $h \geq 1$ and $0 \leq r \leq m$, the $r$th-order linear code $RM_{2^h}(r, m)$ over $\mathbb{Z}_{2^h}$ of length $2^m$ is generated by the monomials in the $x_i$ of degree at most $r$. 

Definition 8: For \( h > 1 \) and \( 0 \leq r \leq m + 1 \), the \( r \)th-order linear code \( ZRM_{2h}(r, m) \) over \( \mathbb{Z}_{2h} \) of length \( 2^m \) is generated by the monomials in the \( x_i \) of degree at most \( r - 1 \) together with two times the monomials in the \( x_i \) of degree \( r \) (with the convention that the monomials of degree \(-1\) and \( m + 1 \) are equal to zero).

The code \( RM_{2h}(r, m) \) generalizes the binary Reed–Muller code \( RM(r, m) \) from the alphabet \( \mathbb{Z}_2 \) (the case \( h = 1 \)) to the alphabet \( \mathbb{Z}_{2h} \). Likewise, the code \( ZRM_{2h}(r, m) \) generalizes the quaternary Reed–Muller code \( ZRM(r, m) \) defined in [25] from the alphabet \( \mathbb{Z}_4 \) (the case \( h = 2 \)) to the alphabet \( \mathbb{Z}_{2h} \). In both cases, the formal generator matrix is unchanged as \( h \) varies, but the alphabet over which it is interpreted changes. The number of monomials in the \( x_i \) of degree \( r \) is \( \binom{m}{r} \), so \( RM_{2h}(r, m) \) contains \( 2^h \sum_{i=0}^{r} \binom{r}{i} \) codewords and \( ZRM_{2h}(r, m) \) contains

\[
2^h \sum_{i=0}^{r} \binom{r}{i} \cdot 2^{h-1} \binom{m}{i}
\]
codewords. Note these generalizations of the Reed–Muller code are distinct from the generalized Reed–Muller code \( GRM(r, m) \) [40], which is defined over a field, and the quaternary Reed–Muller code \( QRM(r, m) \) [25], which generalizes the quaternary representation of the Kerdock code.

For example, \( RM_{2h}(1, 4) \) has the generator matrix shown in (12) at the bottom of this page and contains \( 2^{2h} \) codewords for \( h \geq 1 \), and \( ZRM_{2h}(2, 4) \) has the generator matrix shown below (12) (also at the bottom of this page) and contains \( 2^{h-1} \cdot 2^{h-1} \binom{m}{i} \) codewords for \( h > 1 \).

We are particularly interested in the code \( ZRM_{2h}(2, m) \), comprising \( 2^{h-1}m(m-1)/2 \) cosets of the subcode \( RM_{2h}(1, m) \), each coset containing \( 2^{h-1} \binom{m}{i} \) codewords. We can restate the cases \( h > 1 \) of Corollary 4 in terms of these codes as:

Corollary 9: Each of the \( m/2 \) cosets of \( RM_{2h}(1, m) \) in \( ZRM_{2h}(2, m) \) having a coset representative of the form

\[
2^{h-1} \sum_{k=1}^{m-1} x_{n(k)} x_{n(k+1)}
\]

comprises \( 2^{h(m+1)} \) Golay sequences over \( \mathbb{Z}_{2h} \) of length \( 2^m \), where \( \pi \) is a permutation of the symbols \( \{1, 2, \ldots, m\} \) and \( h > 1 \).

We have seen in Theorem 2 that the PMEPR of any Golay sequence is at most 2, and Corollaries 6 and 9 give concise and structured representations for large sets of Golay sequences in the cases \( h = 1 \) and \( h > 1 \), respectively. These representations readily lend themselves to implementation in an OFDM coding scheme having tight envelope power control. If we did not wish to consider using sequences other than Golay sequences for OFDM transmission then it would be more natural to replace the multiple 2 in Definition 8 by the multiple \( 2^{h-1} \) and to extend the definition of \( ZRM_{2h}(r, m) \) to the case \( h = 1 \); in that case, Corollary 9 would hold for all cases \( h \geq 1 \). However, by taking more cosets of \( RM_{2h}(1, m) \) in \( ZRM_{2h}(2, m) \) we can increase the rate of OFDM transmission at the cost of progressively larger values of PMEPR, as we discuss in Section IV. To allow such design freedom, our objective in defining \( ZRM_{2h}(r, m) \) was that the linear code \( ZRM_{2h}(2, m) \) should be the largest superset of the Golay sequences of Corollary 4 which does not compromise the minimum Hamming or Lee distance, as we now describe.

Let \( a = (a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_{n-1}) \) be a sequence over \( \mathbb{Z}_H \) of length \( n \). The Hamming weight of \( a \) is the number of nonzero \( a_i \) and the Lee weight [40] of \( a \) is \( \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \min(a_i, H-a_i) \). The Hamming (or Lee) distance between two such sequences \( a \) and \( b \) is the Hamming (or Lee) weight of \( a-b \) (when written as a sequence over \( \mathbb{Z}_H \)). The Hamming distance measures the number of positions in which \( a \) and \( b \) differ, whereas the Lee distance takes into account the magnitude of the difference.
over \( \mathbb{Z}_H \) at each position; these coincide in the binary case \( H = 2 \). For example, the Hamming distance between the sequences \((5, 7, 0, 1)\) and \((3, 7, 7, 6)\) over \( \mathbb{Z}_8 \) is 3 whereas the Lee distance is \( 2 + 0 + 1 + 3 = 6 \). The minimum Hamming or minimum Lee distance of a code, which is taken over all pairs of distinct codewords, is a measure of its error correction capability: if the (Hamming or Lee) minimum distance is \( d \) then we can always correct errors of (Hamming or Lee) weight less than \( d/2 \). If the transmission channel renders all \( H - 1 \) possible errors for a given codeword position equally likely then the traditional Hamming distance metric is an appropriate measure. However, if errors involving a transition between adjacent values in \( \mathbb{Z}_H \) are much more likely than other errors in a given position then the Lee distance metric is more appropriate [40]. We consider both metrics to be useful measures of error correction capability for OFDM transmission and so we now derive the minimum Hamming and Lee distance for the codes \( \text{RM}_{2h}(r, m) \) and \( \text{ZRM}_{2h}(r, m) \). The method uses the fact that the minimum Hamming distance of the binary code \( \text{RM}(r, m) \) is \( 2^{m-r} \).

Theorem 10: The following expressions (shown at the bottom of this page) hold for \( 0 \leq r \leq m \).

Proof: For any linear code the minimum distance equals the minimum weight of the nonzero codewords, in both the Hamming and Lee case. For each of the four values required by the theorem we derive a lower bound on the minimum distance and then exhibit a codeword whose weight equals that lower bound.

We first use induction on \( h \geq 2 \) to establish the minimum Hamming and Lee distance of \( \text{ZRM}_{2h}(r, m) \). The case \( r = 0 \) is trivial and can be excluded. Let \( a = (a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_{2m-1}) \) be any nonzero codeword in \( \text{ZRM}_{2h}(r, m) \) and define \( b = (b_0, b_1, \ldots, b_{2h-1}) \) by \( b_i \equiv a_i (\bmod 2^{h-1}) \) and \( b_i \in \mathbb{Z}_{2h-1} \) for each \( i \). Now \( b \) is a codeword in \( \text{ZRM}_{2h-1}(r, m) \) if \( h > 2 \) and is a codeword in \( \text{RM}(r-1, m) \) if \( h = 2 \).

Case 1: \( b = 0 \). In this case \( a = 2^{h-1}d' \) for a nonzero codeword \( d' \) in \( \text{RM}(r, m) \), so \( d' \) has Hamming weight at least \( 2^{m-r} \). Therefore, \( a \) has Hamming weight at least \( 2^{m-r} \) and Lee weight at least \( 2^{h-1} \cdot 2^{m-r} \geq 2^{m-r+1} \).

Case 2: \( b \neq 0 \). In this case \( b \) has Hamming weight at least \( 2^{m-r} \) and Lee weight over \( \mathbb{Z}_{2h-1} \) at least \( 2^{m-r+1} \), using the induction hypothesis if \( h > 2 \). Therefore, \( a \) has Hamming weight at least \( 2^{m-r} \) and Lee weight over \( \mathbb{Z}_{2h} \) at least \( 2^{m-r+1} \) (since \( \min(a_i, 2^{h-1} - a_i) \geq \min(b_i, 2^{h-1} - b_i) \) when \( a_i = b_i \) or \( b_i + 2^{h-1} - 1 \)).

Furthermore, the codeword \( 2^{h-1} \cdot x_1 x_2 \cdot \cdots \cdot x_r \) has Hamming weight \( 2^{m-r} \), and the codeword \( x_1 x_2 \cdot \cdots \cdot x_{r-1} (or \ 1 \text{ if } r = 1) \) has Lee weight \( 2^{m-r+1} \). This completes the proof for \( \text{ZRM}_{2h}(r, m) \).

By a similar induction on \( h \) the minimum Hamming and Lee distance for \( \text{RM}_{2h}(r, m) \) is at least \( 2^{m-r} \), and the codeword \( x_1 x_2 \cdot \cdots \cdot x_r \) has Hamming and Lee weight \( 2^{m-r} \).

The proof of Theorem 10 demonstrates our earlier claim that the minimum Hamming and Lee distance of \( \text{ZRM}_{2h}(r, m) \) is not compromised by using the multiple 2 in Definition 8 instead of the multiple \( 2^{h-1} \).

We conclude this section with a short discussion of bent functions, which will be useful when describing encoding options in Section IV. For \( m \) even, a bent function is a Boolean function \( f(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_m) \) for which all the Hadamard transform coefficients of the \( \pm 1 \) sequence \( (-1)^{f(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_m)} \) have magnitude \( 2^{m/2} \). A bent function is equivalent to a Hadamard difference set in the group \( \mathbb{Z}_{2^m} \). The function \( \sum_{k=1}^{m/2} x_2k-1 x_{2k} \) is bent, and any affine transformation of a bent function is also bent. A Kerdock code of length \( 2m \) is the union of \( 2^{m-1} \) cosets of \( \text{RM}(1, m) \) in \( \text{RM}(2, m) \), where \( m \geq 4 \) is even. One of the coset representatives is 0 (so \( \text{RM}(1, m) \) itself is contained in the code), and all the others are bent functions having the property that the sum of any two of them is also a bent function. The minimum Hamming distance of any such code is \( 2^{m-1} - 2^{(m-2)/2} \). For details of these and other results, see [31]. We now show that for \( m \) even, all the binary Golay sequences of Corollary 6 are bent functions; since these sequences occur as cosets of \( \text{RM}(1, m) \) in \( \text{RM}(2, m) \), some may also belong to a Kerdock code.

Theorem 11: For \( m \) even, each of the \( m!/2 \) cosets of \( \text{RM}(1, m) \) in \( \text{RM}(2, m) \) having a coset representative of the form \( \sum_{k=1}^{m/2} x_{\pi(k)} x_{\pi(k+1)} \) comprises \( 2^{m+1} \) bent functions, where \( \pi \) is a permutation of the symbols \( \{1, 2, \ldots, m\} \).

Proof: We show that the function

\[
\sum_{k=1}^{m-1} x_{\pi(k)} x_{\pi(k+1)} + \sum_{k=1}^{m} c_k x_{2k} + c
\]

can be obtained from \( \sum_{k=1}^{m/2} x_{2k-1} x_{2k} \) by a sequence of affine transformations, for any \( c_k \in \mathbb{Z}_2 \). The linear transformation \( x_1 \mapsto x_1 + x_3, x_3 \mapsto x_3 + x_5, \ldots, x_{m-3} \mapsto x_{m-3} + x_{m-1}, \) and \( x_i \mapsto x_i \) for all other \( x_i \), maps \( \sum_{k=1}^{m/2} x_{2k-1} x_{2k} \) to \( \sum_{k=1}^{m} x_k x_{k+1} \). Then the linear transformation \( x_i \mapsto x_{\pi(i)} + b_i \), where each \( b_i \in \mathbb{Z}_2 \) is determined by a single \( c_k \), maps this to

\[
\sum_{k=1}^{m-1} x_{\pi(k)} x_{\pi(k+1)} + \sum_{k=1}^{m} c_k x_k + b
\]

for \( b = c \) or \( c + 1 \). If necessary, we can apply a translation to add 1 and so obtain the required function. \( \square \)
IV. ENCODING

The combination of the new results of Sections II and III immediately suggests a practical OFDM coding scheme using 2^b-phase shift keying: allow as codewords only those Golay sequences described in Corollaries 6 (for h = 1) and 9 (for h > 1). This simultaneously confines tight envelope power control, by Theorem 2, and good error correction capability, by Theorem 10. The Golay sequences in question occur as m/2 cosets of RM_{2h}(1, m) and for convenience of implementation we use 2^w of these cosets, where 2^w is the largest integer power of 2 no greater than m/2. Under this scheme, we encode w + h(m + 1) information bits per OFDM symbol period. We use w bits to encode the choice of coset representative using a look-up table. The remaining h(m + 1) bits are converted to m + 1 information symbols u_1, u_2, ..., u_m, u \in Z_{2h} by taking each consecutive group of h bits to be the binary representation of an element of Z_{2h}. The information symbols are then used to form the linear combination \sum_{i=1}^{m} u_i x_i + u, in which each symbol multiplies one row of the standard generator matrix for RM_{2h}(1, m). This linear combination can be calculated in hardware in 2^m clock cycles using the encoding circuit for RM (1, m) given in [31, p. 420]. The sum (over Z_{2h}) of this linear combination with the selected coset representative is the OFDM codeword (a_0, a_1, ..., a_{2^m-1}), which is modulated prior to transmission according to (1). The code rate, namely the ratio of the number of information bits to the number of coded bits, is (w+h(m+1))/2^m, and we define the information rate to be h times the code rate. The information rate describes the increased rate at which information bits are encoded when we change the code from binary to quaternary, from quaternary to octary, and so on.

For example, consider the octary case with 16 carriers (h = 3, m = 4). The 12 coset representatives given by Corollary 9 are

\[
\begin{align*}
(0000040000040404) &= 4(x_1x_2 + x_2x_3 + x_3x_4), \\
(0004000004040404) &= 4(x_1x_2 + x_2x_4 + x_3x_4), \\
(0000040000404004) &= 4(x_1x_3 + x_2x_3 + x_2x_4), \\
(0004000004004044) &= 4(x_1x_3 + x_3x_4 + x_2x_4), \\
(0004000400400404) &= 4(x_2x_3 + x_3x_4 + x_2x_4), \\
(0000040004004004) &= 4(x_1x_4 + x_2x_4 + x_3x_4), \\
(0004000400440044) &= 4(x_1x_4 + x_3x_4 + x_2x_4), \\
(0004000404040404) &= 4(x_2x_4 + x_1x_3 + x_3x_4), \\
(0004004004040404) &= 4(x_2x_4 + x_1x_3 + x_2x_4), \\
(0000040404040404) &= 4(x_2x_4 + x_1x_4 + x_3x_4), \\
(0004004404040404) &= 4(x_2x_4 + x_1x_4 + x_2x_4),
\end{align*}
\]

of which we choose eight (say the first eight), so w = 3. The union of the eight cosets of RM_{8}(1, 4) having these coset representatives comprises the set of OFDM codewords, all of which have PMEPR of at most 2. The code forms a subcode of ZRM_{8}(2, 4) and has minimum Hamming and Lee distance 4 and 8, respectively. An error of Hamming weight 1 can always be corrected, as can an error of Lee weight at most 3. The code rate is 3/8 and the information rate is 9/8. Given 18 information bits, three are used to select one of the eight coset representatives and the remaining 15 are regarded as the binary representation of five information symbols u_1, u_2, u_3, u_4, u_5. The linear combination u_1x_1 + u_2x_2 + u_3x_3 + u_4x_4 + u_5 is calculated with reference to the generator matrix (12) for RM_{8}(1, 4) and added to the selected coset representative. Suppose the 18 information bits are 01101111011110110. The first three bits 011 select the coset representative (00004000000040000) (labeling the first eight coset representatives (000), (001), ..., (111)). The remaining 15 bits select the linear combination 5x_1 + 7x_2 + 3x_3 + 6x_4 + 6 = (6417530631642063), so the OFDM codeword is (6413570631242417).

The above coding scheme is restricted to the Golay sequences described in Sections II and III. These sequences occur as m/2 “Golay cosets” of RM_{2h}(1, m) within a second-order linear code, where the second-order linear code is RM_{2h}(2, m) in the binary case h = 1 and is ZRM_{2h}(2, m) in the nonbinary cases h > 1. We can increase the code rate, at the cost of progressively larger values of PMEPR, by including additional cosets of RM_{2h}(1, m) within the same second-order code. These additional cosets do not necessarily comprise or even contain Golay sequences. Nonetheless we have found that partitioning the second-order code into cosets of RM_{2h}(1, m) is an effective means of isolating codewords with large values of PMEPR. Alternatively, we can increase the minimum Hamming distance, at the cost of a lower code rate, by choosing fewer than 2^m of the original m/2 Golay cosets. In this way we can trade off code rate, PMEPR, and error correction capability to provide a range of solutions to the envelope power problem. For implementation convenience we use 2^w cosets of RM_{2h}(1, m) for some integer w to encode w + h(m + 1) information bits, storing the coset representatives in a look-up table. We can determine the possible options for given h and m by arranging all the cosets of RM_{2h}(1, m) (within the appropriate second-order code) in increasing order of their maximum PEP over the 2^{h(m+1)} codewords in the coset, as we now illustrate.

A. The Binary Case

Consider the binary case with 16 carriers (h = 1, m = 4). Tables I and II list the 2^{m(m+1)/2} = 64 cosets of RM_{2}(1, 4) in RM_{2}(2, 4) in increasing order of their maximum PEP over the 32 codewords in the coset. The PEP of each codeword is calculated using 2^i times oversampling, finding \( P(t) = |s(t)|^2 \) from (1) at each sample point \( t = i/(2^{m+j}D) \) for \( i = 0, 1, ..., 2^{m+j}-1 \) and taking the largest sample value of \( P(t) \). The value of \( j \) is increased until the maximum calculated PEP over the coset is stable. The first 12 cosets of Tables I and II are the m/2 Golay cosets of Corollary 6, each of which has a maximum PMEPR of at most 2 (since PMEPR = PEP/n and we have fixed \( n = 2^m \) in accordance with Theorem 2. The final coset in the list is RM_{2}(1, 4) itself, which has a maximum PMEPR of 2^m since it contains the sequence (0, 0, ..., 0). The remaining cosets have intermediate values of maximum
TABLE I

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coset representative</th>
<th>Max PEP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 0 1</td>
<td>31.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 1</td>
<td>31.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 1 0 1 1</td>
<td>31.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 1 0 1 1</td>
<td>31.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 1 0 1 1</td>
<td>31.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 1 0 1 1</td>
<td>32.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 1 0 1 1</td>
<td>32.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 1 0 1 1</td>
<td>32.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 1 0 1 1</td>
<td>32.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 1 0 1 1</td>
<td>32.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 1 0 1 1</td>
<td>32.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 1 0 1 1</td>
<td>32.02</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PMEPR. Observe that the maximum PMEPR for the cosets in the first half of the list is no greater than 4; we remark that this property holds for the binary case with 8 and 32 carriers too.

Table VII summarizes some possible options for binary coding for 16 and 32 carriers, most of which are derived from the ordered list given in Tables I and II. The reference option for 16 carriers is Option 3, which uses the first eight (Golay) cosets of this ordered list. Option 4 uses the 32 cosets in the first half of the list and trades an increase in code rate for an increase in maximum PMEPR from 2 to 4. Option 1 uses just the first coset of the list and trades an increase in minimum Hamming distance from 11 to 16. Option 2 is a compromise between Options 1 and 3, based on the Kerdock code of length 6 and which has minimum Hamming distance 12. The reference option for 32 carriers is Option 7, which uses the first 32 of these 60 cosets. Option 6 uses just the first coset of the list. (We could derive a compromise between Options 6 and 7 having minimum Hamming distance 12 based on a Kerdock code of length 32. Although we have given only the classical definition of a Kerdock code, for $m \geq 4$ even, [25] defines a corresponding Kerdock code for $m \geq 3$ odd which can be represented as the union of $2^{m-1}$ cosets of RM$(1, m)$ in RM$(2, m)$ and which has minimum Hamming distance $2^{m-1} - 2^{(m-1)/2}$. The number of information bits of this compromise option will be determined by how many of the 16 Kerdock cosets are also Golay cosets.) Comparing Options 1 and 3 with Options 6 and 7, respectively, we see that doubling the number of carriers from 16 to 32 incurs a penalty in terms of code rate. However, it carries the advantage that intersymbol interference in the transmitted signal will be reduced and consequently delay spread in the channel will also be reduced.

Alternatively, we can maintain the code rate as the number of carriers doubles, at the cost of increased PMEPR. It is straightforward to show that if $a$ and $b$ are sequences over $Z_2$ of length $n$ having PMEPR at most $R$ then the sequence formed by interleaving or concatenating the elements of $a$ and $b$ has PMEPR at most $2R$. For example, by encoding according
to Option 1 twice independently, and either interleaving or concatenating the resulting codeword elements, we obtain the composition coding scheme of Option 8 having the same code rate but a maximum PMEPR of \(4\). Decoding is likewise carried out by regarding the received codeword as two independent half-length codewords, which is indicated in Table VII by writing the minimum Hamming distance for Option 8 as \(\sqrt{2}\) (see also Section V). Examples of this technique of interleaving or concatenating codewords to maintain code rate and to control PMEPR for OFDM transmission have been noted previously [35], [45]. Option 10 is similarly derived from Option 3, with the following modification to improve the code rate slightly. Recall that there are 12 cosets listed in Tables I and II having PMEPR at most \(4\), of which Option 3 uses the first eight. We can, therefore, form ordered pairs of length 16 coset representatives to be added to the respective length 16 linear combinations in \(\mathbb{RM}\) prior to interleaving or concatenating. In this way, Option 10 encodes \(4\) information bits. Likewise, Option 2 uses four cosets chosen from six, and since \(2^{2} < 6 \cdot 4\) we can encode \(5 + 2 \cdot 2 = 5\) information bits in the composition coding scheme of Option 9. Finally, Option 5 is a composition coding scheme based on a single Golay coset of \(\mathbb{RM}\).

### B. The Quaternary Case

For the nonbinary cases \(h > 1\) we form similar ordered lists of the \(2^{h} / 4\) cosets of \(\mathbb{RM}_{2h}(1, m)\) in \(\mathbb{ZRM}_{2h}(2, m)\). Consider the quaternary case with 16 carriers \((h = 4, m = 4)\). Tables III and IV list the 64 cosets of \(\mathbb{RM}_{4}(1, 4)\) in \(\mathbb{ZRM}_{4}(2, 4)\) in increasing order of their average PEP over the 1024 codewords in the coset, headed by the 12 Golay cosets of Corollary 9. The maximum PMEPR for the cosets in the first half of the list is no greater than \(4\) (as in the binary case), and the same is true for 8 and 32 carriers. Tables III and IV contain a striking feature not present in Tables I and II: the maximum PMEPR over each coset is an exact power of 2, and the same is true for 4, 8, and 32 carriers. Table VIII summarizes options for quaternary coding for 16 and 32 carriers, mostly derived from the ordered list of Tables III and IV. These options are determined in a similar manner to those having the corresponding option number in Table IX. A similar method to the proof of Theorem 10 shows that if \(m \geq 4\) is even and the set of cosets \(\{g_{i} + \mathbb{RM}_{2h}(1, m)\}\) is a Kerdock code of length \(2^{m}\) then the minimum Hamming distance of \(\{2^{m} / 4 g_{i} + \mathbb{RM}_{2h}(1, m)\}\) over \(\mathbb{Z}_{2^{m}}\) is \(2^{m-1-2^{m-2} / 2}\) for \(h > 1\). Option 2 exploits this result, using coset representatives whose values are twice those of the binary Option 2. Option 5a is a composition coding scheme...
based on three Golay cosets of $\text{RM}_8(1, 3)$. Error correction for this option can be done with respect to Lee distance (though not always with respect to Hamming distance, which is why it does not occur in Table VII). Comparison of Tables VII and VIII demonstrates that choice of modulation scheme is a further component of design freedom. The quaternary schemes have up to twice the information rate of the corresponding binary schemes for the same minimum Hamming distance, together with enhanced error correction capability based on Lee distance. Their disadvantage is that quaternary modulation leads to a smaller minimum Euclidean distance than binary modulation and so their transmission error rate is larger.

### C. The Octary Case

Consider the octary case with 16 carriers ($h = 3$, $m = 4$). Tables V and VI list the 4096 cosets of $\text{RM}_8(1, 4)$ in $\text{ZRM}_8(1, 4)$ in increasing order of their maximum PEP over the 32768 codewords in the coset. The list is headed by the 12 Golay cosets of Corollary 9, followed by 48 cosets whose maximum PMEPR is exactly 3. The maximum PMEPR for the cosets in the first quarter of the list is no greater than 4; for eight carriers this is true for the first half of the list. Table IX summarizes options for octary coding for 16 and 32 carriers, the option numbers corresponding to those in Table VIII. Option 2 uses coset representatives whose values are four times those of the binary Option 2. Option 4 has smaller maximum PMEPR than the quaternary Option 4 because it uses 12 Golay cosets together with 20 of the 48 cosets having maximum PMEPR of 3. The parameters of Option 5 coincide with those proposed independently in [35].

### D. Comments

The coset ordering process illustrated for binary, quaternary, and octary modulation can clearly be applied to larger values of $h$. Since these coding schemes are all based on the same formal generator matrix for $\text{RM}_2(1, m)$, interpreted over different alphabets $\mathbb{Z}_{2^m}$, it is simple to change adaptively between coding options according to the propagation channel and evolving system requirements. In this way we obtain flexible coding schemes which combine tight control of PMEPR with powerful error correction capability and structured encoding. Efficient methods of decoding will be discussed in Section V.

The numerical results presented demonstrate, at least for small values of $h$ and $m$, that partitioning the codewords of $\text{RM}_2(1, m)$ or $\text{ZRM}_2(h, m)$ into cosets of $\text{RM}_2^2(1, m)$ is an effective method of isolating those codewords with large values of PMEPR. Indeed, the maximum PMEPR over the entire second-order

<table>
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<th>$u_{12}$</th>
<th>$u_{13}$</th>
<th>$u_{14}$</th>
<th>$u_{23}$</th>
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<th>Max PEP</th>
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<td>32.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

... [Continued in Table IV]
The code space is $2^m$, and yet for small values of $h$ and $m$ we typically need reduce this space by a factor of only two or four (losing just one or two encoding bits) to reduce the maximum PMEPR to at most 4.

Based on numerical evidence for the quaternary case we speculate that for all $m$ the maximum PMEPR over any coset of $R_{m}^1(1, m)$ in $ZR_{m}^1(2, m)$ is an exact power of 2. Cammarano and Walker [9] have shown that the Golay cosets of Corollary 9 always attain the upper bound of 2 on their maximum PMEPR, which establishes this speculation for all the quaternary cosets. (Reference [9] also shows that the binary Golay cosets of Corollary 6 attain the upper bound of 2 on their maximum PMEPR when $m$ is odd, and [38] contains further results along these lines.)

We further speculate that a coset of $R_{m}^1(1, m)$ in $ZR_{m}^1(2, m)$ having maximum PMEPR of 2 comprises sequences belonging to a Golay complementary $2^3$-tuple (defined analogously to the case $\alpha = 1$ given in Definition 1). A straightforward modification of Theorem 2 would then give the correct maximum PMEPR. Paterson’s work [38] contains significant results on this question, showing that each such coset comprises sequences belonging to a Golay complementary $2^3$-tuple for some $\beta \geq \alpha$ and that $\beta = \alpha$ in certain cases. These results allow tables such as Tables III and IV to be predicted at least in part.

We note that the octary Tables V and VI contain a striking feature that is not present in the comparable binary and quaternary Tables I and II as well as III and IV, namely, that 48 cosets of $R_{m}^1(1, 4)$ in $ZR_{m}^1(2, 4)$ have maximum PMEPR of 3 exactly. Nieswand and Wagner [36] have partially explained this by exhibiting, for each $m > 2$, a total of $2 \cdot m!$ cosets of $R_{m}^1(1, m)$ in $ZR_{m}^1(2, m)$ each of which contains a codeword whose envelope power $P(t)$ satisfies $P(t) = 3 \cdot 2^m$; in the cases $m = 3$ and $m = 4$ the $2 \cdot m!$ cosets so identified are precisely those whose maximum PMEPR is exactly 3.

### V. Decoding

An important attraction of the binary Reed–Muller code for applications purposes is that it is easy to decode. In particular, the first-order code $R_{m}^1(1, 4)$ can be decoded very efficiently by means of the fast Hadamard transform (FHT). In this section we give a fast decoding algorithm for $R_{m}^1(1, m)$ for any $h \geq 1$, requiring $h$ FHT’s and $h$ encoding operations in $R_{m}^1(1, m)$. This algorithm acts as a decoder for $R_{m}^1(1, m)$ with respect to both Hamming and Lee distance: it always corrects errors of Hamming or Lee weight less than the limit $d_{m}^1 = 2^m - 2$ guaranteed by the minimum Hamming or Lee distance $d = 2^m - 1$ of the code (see Theorem 10). In fact, the class of errors which can always be corrected by the algorithm includes many whose Hamming...
TABLE V

Octary Coding with 16 Carriers: The 4096 Cosets of RM₅₁₁₁, 1, 4 in ZRM₅₂₂₂. 2, 4, Ordered by Maximum PEP Over the Coset.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coset representative</th>
<th>Max PEP</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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<tr>
<td>(0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0)</td>
<td>32.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Continued in Table VI)

or Lee weight greatly exceeds this limit. The algorithm can be used for soft-decision as well as hard-decision decoding. It is scalable in the sense that the decoder for RM₂₅₁₁, 1, m can be obtained directly from the decoder for RM₂₅₂₂, 1, m simply by including one additional iteration. We also extend the decoding algorithm, while maintaining its favorable properties, to deal with an arbitrary union of cosets of RM₂₅₂₂, 1, m. This extension efficiently decodes any of the coding schemes of Section IV.

We remark that Ashikhmin and Litsyn [4] give an extension to nonbinary cases of the standard FHT method for decoding RM₂₅₂₂, 1, m but their extension applies to GRM₂₅₂, 1, m rather than to RM₂₅₂₂, 1, m (see Section III). We also note that van Nee [35] implicitly gives a hard-decision decoder for RM₂₅₂₂, 1, 3 with respect to Hamming (and, therefore, by Theorem 10, Lee) distance but does not analyze which errors of Hamming weight greater than 1 can be corrected by this decoder and makes no mention of Lee weight.

We begin by summarizing the standard FHT method for decoding RM₂₅₁₁, 1, m, as described in [31].

Definition 12: The Sylvester–Hadamard matrix $H_{2^m} = (H_{ij})$ of order $2^m$ is given by

$$H_{ij} = (-1)\sum_{k=1}^{m} i_k j_k,$$

for $i, j \in \mathbb{Z}_{2^m}$.

where $(i_1, i_2, \cdots, i_m)$ and $(j_1, j_2, \cdots, j_m)$ are the binary representation of $i$ and $j$, respectively. The Hadamard transform of the row vector $y = (y_1, y_2, \cdots, y_{2^m-1})$ is $\tilde{y} = y H_{2^m}$. The Hadamard transform $\hat{y}$ of a sequence $y$ of length $2^m$ can be calculated rapidly by representing $H_{2^m}$ as the product of $m$ sparse matrices; we then call $\hat{y}$ the fast Hadamard transform (FHT) of $y$. The FHT can be implemented in software with $m2^m$ additions, and in hardware using the Green machine with $m$ stages.

If $a$ is a sequence of length $n$ we shall denote by $(a)_i$ the $i$th element of $a$ for $i = 0, 1, \cdots, n-1$. We shall write $(-1)^a$ for the sequence whose $i$th element is $(-1)^{(a)_i}$; and write $a \mod 2^k$ for the sequence whose $i$th element is $(a)_i \mod 2^k$ (namely, the integer $j \in \mathbb{Z}_{2^k}$ satisfying $(a)_i - j \equiv 0 \mod 2^k$).

Now suppose the codeword $c$ of RM₂₅₁₁, 1, m is received in error as $r = (c + e) \mod 2$, where $e$ is a sequence over $\mathbb{Z}_2$. The decoding procedure for RM₂₅₁₁, 1, m calculates the FHT $\tilde{y}$ of $(-1)^c$ and determines a value of $j \in \mathbb{Z}_{2^m}$ for which $(\tilde{y})_j$ is an element of $\tilde{y}$ of largest magnitude. It then sets $w = 0$ or 1 according as $(\tilde{y})_j$ is positive or negative, takes $(u_1, u_2, \cdots, u_m)$ to be the binary representation of $j$, and decodes $r$ as $(\sum_{i=1}^{m} u_i x_i + w) \mod 2$. (By truncating intermediate results of the FHT this procedure can actually
be implemented in software with fewer than $m2^m$ additions [3].) The decoding procedure relies on the fact that the columns of $H_{2m}$ together with the columns of $-H_{2m}$ comprise $2^{m+1}$ sequences of the form $(-1)^a$, where $a$ ranges over the codewords of $RM_{2}(1, m)$. So, in the absence of errors, $(\hat{y})_j$ is $\pm2^m$ for a unique value $j = J$ and is 0 for each $j \neq J$.

The effect of the error $e$, having Hamming weight $\text{wt}(e)$, is to reduce the magnitude of $(\hat{y})_j$ from $2^m$ by exactly $2\text{wt}(e)$ and to increase the magnitude of $(\hat{y})_j$ for each $j \neq J$ from 0 by at most the same amount $2\text{wt}(e)$. Therefore, provided
wt(e) < 2^{m-2}$ the decoding procedure correctly decodes $r$ to $c$. (See Section II for a discussion of the relationship between Boolean functions and binary representations.)

The following definition will be useful in describing the decoding algorithm for RM\(_{2^k}(1, m)\).

**Definition 13:** Let $a = (a_0, a_1, \cdots, a_{m-1})$ be an integer sequence and let $i$ be an integer. We define $\text{wt}_{2^k}(i)$ to be $\min (i \mod 2^k, 2^k - (i \mod 2^k))$ and $\text{wt}_{2^k}(a)$ to be $\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \text{wt}_{2^k}(a_i)$. $\text{wt}_{2^k}(a)$ is equal to the Lee weight over $\mathbb{Z}_{2^k}$ of the sequence $a \mod 2^k$ (see Section III).

We now introduce the decoding algorithm by outlining the octary case $h = 3$. Suppose the codeword $c \in \text{RM}_8(1, m)$ is received in error as $r = (c + e) \mod 8$, where $e$ is a sequence over $\mathbb{Z}_8$. Write $e = (\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} u_i x_i + u) \mod 8$, where $u_i, u \in \mathbb{Z}_8$. Let $(u_2, u_1, u_0)$ be the binary representation of $u_i$ and let $(v_2, v_1, v_0)$ be the binary representation of $u$, so that $u_i = 4v_2 + 2v_1 + v_0$ and $u = 4v_2 + 2v_1 + v_0$. Then

$$c = (4f_2 + 2f_1 + f_0) \mod 8$$

where

$$f_2 = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} v_{2x_i} + v_2\right) \mod 2$$

$$f_1 = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} v_{1x_i} + v_1\right) \mod 4$$

$$f_0 = \left(\sum_{i=0}^{m} v_{0x_i} + v_0\right) \mod 8$$

Write the error $e$ uniquely as $e = 4e_2 + 2e_1 + e_0$, where each $e_k$ is a sequence over $\mathbb{Z}_2$, so that

$$r = (4f_2 + e_2) + 2(f_1 + e_1) + (f_0 + e_0) \mod 8.$$  \quad (17)

Using the FHT, the decoding algorithm recovers the value $f_0$ by reducing modulo 2, then (assuming $f_0$ has been determined correctly) the value $f_1$ by reducing modulo 4, and finally (assuming $f_0$ and $f_1$ have been determined correctly) the value $f_2$: $c$ is then recovered from (13).

We next set $r_1 = (r - f_0) \mod 8$. From (17), $r_1 \mod 4 = (2(f_1 \mod 2) + (2e_1 + e_0)) \mod 4$. From (15), $f_1 \mod 2$ is a codeword in RM\(_2(1, m)\). Therefore, provided $\text{wt}_2(e_0) < 2^{m-2}$ we can use the standard binary decoder for RM\(_2(1, m)\) to recover the binary coefficients $v_{00}, v_{01}, v_{02}$ for $f_0 \mod 2$, and then calculate $f_0$ from (16).

We now set $r = (r_1 - f_0) \mod 8$. From (17), $r_1 \mod 4 = (2(f_1 \mod 2) + (2e_1 + e_0)) \mod 4$. From (15), $f_1 \mod 2$ is a codeword in RM\(_2(1, m)\). We define the sequence $y$ by $y_i = 1 - \text{wt}_4((r_1)_i)$ for $i = 0, 1, \cdots, 2^m - 1$ and take $\hat{y}$ to be the FHT of $y$. Now if $c_0 = 0$ then $y = (-1)^{(f_1 + 1) \mod 2}$

## Table VIII

<table>
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<th># carriers</th>
<th>Max possible PMEPR (dB)</th>
<th>Max actual PMEPR (dB)</th>
<th>Min Hamming distance</th>
<th>Min Lee distance</th>
<th># info bits per codeword</th>
<th>Code rate</th>
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## Table IX

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</tbody>
</table>
and so this stage of the algorithm simply decodes $f_1 \mod 2$ in the presence of the error $e_1$ using the standard binary method; $y_j$ is $\pm 2^m$ for a unique value $j = J$ and is 0 for each $j \neq J$. However, if $c_0 \neq 0$ then $(y)_k = 0$ for all positions $i$ such that $(c_0)_k = 1$. This effectively removes from consideration those elements of $y$ identified as error positions by the FHT from the previous stage. We shall show that the effect of the error $c$ is to reduce the magnitude of $(y)_j$ from $2^m$ by exactly $\text{wt}_4(2c_1 + c_0)$, and to increase the magnitude of $(y)_j$ for each $j \neq J$ from 0 by at most the same amount $\text{wt}_4(2c_1 + c_0)$. Therefore, provided $\text{wt}_4(2c_1 + c_0) < 2^{m-1}$ we can recover the binary coefficients $v_{11}, v_1$ for $f_1 \mod 2$ from the position and sign of the transform sequence element of largest magnitude, and then calculate $f_1$ from (15).

The last stage of the decoding algorithm is to set $r_2 = (r_1 - 2f_1) \mod 8$. From (17)

$$r_2 = (4(f_2 \mod 2) + (4c_2 + 2c_1 + c_0)) \mod 8$$

and from (14), $f_2 \mod 2$ is a codeword in $RM_2(1, m)$. We define the sequence $y$ by $(y)_i = 2 - \text{wt}_8((r_2)_i)$ for $i = 0, 1, \ldots, 2^m - 1$ and take $\hat{y}$ to be the FHT of $y$. If $c_1 = c_0 = 0$ then $y = 2(-1)^{(f_1 + 2c_2) \mod 2}$ so that this stage reduces to the standard decoding of $f_2 \mod 2$ in the presence of the error $c_2$. Otherwise, $(\hat{y})_j$ takes the value 1, 0 or $-1$ for all positions $j$ such that $(2c_1 + c_0)_j \neq 0$; this modifies the result of the FHT according to the error positions identified by both of the previous FHT’s. We shall show that provided $\text{wt}_8(4c_2 + 2c_1 + c_0) < 2 \cdot 2^{m-1}$ we can recover $f_2 \mod 2$ and hence $f_2$.

Finally, we recover $c$ from (13). The conditions for correctly decoding $c + e$ to $c$ are: $\text{wt}_8(e) < 2^{m-2}$, $\text{wt}_4(e) < 2^{m-1}$, and $\text{wt}_8(e) < 2^m$.

We now give a formal description of the decoding algorithm for any value of $h \geq 1$.

**Algorithm 14—Decoding Algorithm for $RM_{2^h}(1, m)$:**

1. Input the received codeword $r$ as a sequence over $\mathbb{Z}_{2^h}$ of length $2^m$. Set $k = 0$ and $r_0 = r$.
2. Define the sequence $y$ by $(y)_i = 2^{k-1} - \text{wt}_{2^{k+1}}((r_k)_i)$ for $i = 0, 1, \ldots, 2^m - 1$.
3. Let $\hat{y}$ be the FHT of $y$ and determine a value of $j \in \mathbb{Z}_{2^m}$ for which $(\hat{y})_j$ is an element of $\hat{y}$ of largest magnitude. Let $w$ be 0 or 1 according as $(\hat{y})_j$ is positive or negative, and let $(w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_m)$ be the binary representation of $j$. Set

$$f_k = \left( \sum_{i=1}^{m} w_i x_i + w \right) \mod 2^{h-k}.$$  

4. If $k = h - 1$ then output the decoded codeword

$$(2^{k-1} f_{h-1} + 2^{k-2} f_{h-2} + \cdots + f_0) \mod 2^h.$$  

Else set $r_{k+1} = (r_k - 2^k f_k) \mod 2^h$, then increment $k$ and go to Step 2).

**Theorem 15:** Let $c$ be a codeword of $RM_{2^h}(1, m)$ and let $e$ be a sequence over $\mathbb{Z}_{2^h}$. Given the input $(c + e) \mod 2^h$, Algorithm 14 outputs $c$ provided $\text{wt}_{2^{k+1}}(e) < 2^{m+k-2}$ for $k = 0, 1, \ldots, h - 1$.

**Proof:** Write

$$c = \left( \sum_{i=1}^{m} u_i x_i + u \right) \mod 2^h$$

where $u_i, u \in \mathbb{Z}_{2^h}$. Let $(v_{i, h-1}, v_{i, h-2}, \ldots, v_{i, 0})$ be the binary representation of $u_i$ and let $(\eta_{i, h-1}, \eta_{i, h-2}, \ldots, \eta_i)$ be the binary representation of $u$, so that

$$u_i = 2^{h-1} v_{i, h-1} + 2^{h-2} v_{i, h-2} + \cdots + v_{i, 0}$$

and

$$u = 2^{h-1} \eta_{i, h-1} + 2^{h-2} \eta_{i, h-2} + \cdots + \eta_i.$$  

Then

$$c = (2^{h-1} f_{h-1} + 2^{h-2} f_{h-2} + \cdots + f_0) \mod 2^h$$

where

$$f_k = \left( \sum_{i=1}^{m} v_{i, k} x_i + \eta_i \right) \mod 2^{h-k}$$

for $k = 0, 1, \ldots, h - 1$. Write the error $e$ uniquely as

$$e = 2^{h-1} c_{h-1} + 2^{h-2} c_{h-2} + \cdots + c_0$$

where each $c_k$ is a sequence over $\mathbb{Z}_{2^h}$, so that the received codeword $r = (c + e) \mod 2^h$ is given by

$$r = (2^{h-1} (f_{h-1} + c_{h-1}) + 2^{h-2} (f_{h-2} + c_{h-2}) + \cdots + (f_0 + c_0)) \mod 2^h.$$  

The algorithm has $h$ passes, 0, 1, \ldots, $h - 1$, and on pass $k$ we determine the value of $f_k$. Assume that the values $f_0, f_1, \ldots, f_{k-1}$ have been determined correctly. Then Step 4) shows that

$$r_k \mod 2^{h+1} = (r - f_0 - 2f_1 - 2^2 f_2 - \cdots - 2^{k-1} f_{k-1}) \mod 2^{h+1}$$

and by (19) and (20) we obtain

$$r_k \mod 2^{h+1} = (2^k (f_k \mod 2) + e \mod 2^{h+1}) \mod 2^{h+1}.$$  

Now it is straightforward to verify the identity

$$2^{h-1} - \text{wt}_{2^{k+1}}(2^h c + \beta) \equiv (-1)^{\alpha} (2^{k-1} - \text{wt}_{2^{k+1}}(\beta)),$$

for all $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}_{2^h}$, $\beta \in \mathbb{Z}_{2^{k+1}}$ for any integer $k \geq 0$. Therefore, by Step 2), we have

$$(\hat{y})_j = (-1)^{(f_k \mod 2) - (2^{k-1} - \text{wt}_{2^{k+1}}(c_0))}.$$  

Since $(\hat{y})_j = \sum_{i=0}^{2^m-1} (\hat{y})_i H_{ij}$, where $H = (H_{ij})$ is the Sylvester–Hadamard matrix of order $2^m$, we then have

$$(\hat{y})_j = 2^{k-1} \sum_{i=0}^{2^m-1} (-1)^{(f_k \mod 2) - H_{ij}}$$

$$- \sum_{i=0}^{2^m-1} (-1)^{(f_k \mod 2) - H_{ij} \text{wt}_{2^{k+1}}(c_0)}$$

$$= 2^{k-1} ((-1)^{(f_k \mod 2) H_j} - \sum_{i=0}^{2^m-1} d_{ij} \text{wt}_{2^{k+1}}(c_0))$$  

(21)
where each $d_{ij} = (-1)^{(f_j \mod 2)}H_{ij}$ takes the value 1 or $-1$. Since $f_k \mod 2$ is a codeword in $RM_2(1,m)$, $((-1)^{(k \mod 2)}H)^T_j$ is $\pm 2^m$ for a unique value $j = J$ and is 0 for each $j \neq J$. Therefore, either $d_{ij} = 1$ for all $i$ or $d_{ij} = -1$ for all $i$. We then see from (21) that the effect of the error $e$ is to reduce the magnitude of $(\hat{y})_j$ from $2^{k-1} \cdot 2^m$ by exactly $wt_{2^{k-1}}(e)$ for a unique value $j = J$, and to increase the magnitude of $(\hat{y})_j$ for each $j \neq J$ from 0 by at most the same amount. By assumption $wt_{2^{k-1}}(e) < 2^{m+k-2}$, so we can recover the binary coefficients $v_{jk}, v_k$ for $f_k \mod 2$ from the position and sign of the transform sequence element of largest magnitude, and then calculate $f_k$ from (18).

Note that when $k = 0$, Step 2) of Algorithm 14 sets $y = (-1)^{y \mod 2}/2$, so pass 0 of the algorithm is the standard binary decoder for $RM_2(1,m)$ except that the values $\pm 1/2$ are used instead of $\pm 1$. For implementation convenience we can choose to work with $2y$ instead of $y$ on pass 0. Note also that we can choose in Step 3) to calculate $f_k$ modulo $2^h$ rather than modulo $2^h - k$ without affecting the result.

**Corollary 16:** Algorithm 14 acts as a decoder for $RM_{2^h}(1,m)$ with respect to Hamming distance and with respect to Lee distance.

**Proof:** Let $c$ be a codeword of $RM_{2^h}(1,m)$ and let $e$ be a transmission error having Hamming weight $wt(c)$. By Theorem 10 it is sufficient to show that Algorithm 14 correctly decodes $(c+e) \mod 2^h$ to $c$ provided that $wt(e) < 2^{m-2}$. This follows from Theorem 15 by noting that $wt_{2^{k-1}}(e) < 2^k wt(e)$ for $k = 0, 1, \ldots, h - 1$.

The full power of Algorithm 14 is demonstrated not by Corollary 16 but by Theorem 15. For example, consider the octary case $h = 3$ with $m = 4$. Theorem 10 and Corollary 16 guarantee only that an error of Hamming (or Lee) weight at most 3 can be corrected and yet by Theorem 15 the error $e = (4002101007004000)$, having Hamming weight 7 and Lee weight 15, can be corrected using Algorithm 14 because it satisfies $wt_3(e) = 3, wt_4(e) = 7, and wt_8(e) = 15$. We now illustrate the use of the decoding algorithm for these values of $h, m$, and $e$, taking the codeword $c$ to be

$$5x_1 + 7x_2 + 3x_3 + 6x_4 + 6 = (6417530631642053).$$

The received codeword is

$$r_0 = (c+e) \mod 8 = (2411631631522453).$$

On pass $k = 0$ we find

$$2y = (1, 1, -1, -1, 1, -1, 1, -1, -1, 1, -1, 1, 1, 1, -1, -1)$$

and

$$2y = (-2, -2, 6, 6, -2, -2, -2, -2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 10, -6).$$

We, therefore, set

$$f_0 = (x_1 + x_2 + x_3) \mod 8 = (0011112211222233)$$

and

$$r_1 = (r_0 - f_0) \mod 8 = (2400527420300220).$$

On pass $k = 1$ we find

$$y = (-1, 1, 1, 1, 0, -1, 0, 1, -1, 1, 0, 1, 1, -1, -1, 1, -1, 1).$$

We, therefore, set

$$f_1 = (x_2 + x_3 + x_4 + 1) \mod 4 = (12232301223230)$$

and

$$r_2 = (r_1 - f_1) \mod 8 = (004214140724440).$$

On pass $k = 2$ we find

$$y = (2, 2, -2, 0, 1, -2, 1, -2, 2, -2, 1, 0, -2, -2, -2, 2)$$

and

$$y = (-3, 5, 1, 9, 1, 9, 1, 3, 3, 11, -5, -1, -17, 3, 3).$$

We, therefore, set

$$f_2 = (x_1 + x_2 + x_4 + 1) \mod 2 = (1011010101010101).$$

The output of the decoding algorithm is

$$(4f_2 + 2f_1 + f_0) \mod 8 = (6417530631642053)$$

which is the original codeword.

Under the encoding schemes of Section IV information symbols $u_i, u_j \in \mathbb{Z}_{2^h}$ are used to form the codeword $(\sum_{i=1}^{nm} u_i x_i + u_i) \mod 2^h$ of $RM_{2^h}(1,m)$. These information symbols can be recovered directly using the above decoding algorithm: in the above example the output is determined as $(4(x_1 + x_2 + x_4 + 1) + 2(x_2 + x_3 + x_4 + 1) + (x_1 + x_2 + x_3)) \mod 8 = (5x_1 + 7x_2 + 3x_3 + 6x_4 + 6) \mod 8$. Furthermore, the binary representation of the information symbols $u_i, u$ gives the original information bits, so these can also be recovered directly from the algorithm as the coefficients $v_{jk}, v_k$ for $k = 0, 1, \ldots, h - 1$. Now pass $k$ of the algorithm can determine incorrectly the value $f_k$ if the error $e$ does not satisfy $wt_{2^{k-1}}(e) < 2^{m+k-2}$. If this happens then subsequent passes can determine incorrectly the values $f_{k+1}, f_{k+2}, \ldots, f_{h-1}$ so that the decoded codeword can have large Lee distance from the original codeword. However, provided the values $f_0, f_1, \ldots, f_{k-1}$ are all determined correctly, at least $k(m+1)$ information bits (namely, the coefficients $u_{ij}, u_j$ for $i = 1, 2, \ldots, m$ and $j = 0, 1, \ldots, k - 1$) out of the original $h(m+1)$ will be determined correctly.
The principal computational requirement for Algorithm 14 is $h$ integer-valued FHT’s and $h$ summations of the form $(\sum_{i=1}^{m} u_i x_i + w) \mod 2^{h}$. Each summation can be calculated using whatever software or hardware procedure is used to encode the information symbols $u_i, w$ as the element $(\sum_{i=1}^{m} u_i x_i + w) \mod 2^{h}$ of $RM_2(1, m)$.

We have presented Algorithm 14 as a hard-decision decoder (acting on a sequence whose elements are integers in $Z_2^h$), but it can also be used as a soft-decision decoder (acting on a sequence whose elements are real numbers in the range $[0, 2^h]$). We simply need to extend Definition 13 for $\tau_k$ to deal with real-valued $\tau$ by taking $\sum \mod 2^{h+k}$ to be the real number $j$ in the range $[0, 2^h]$ satisfying $j \equiv 0 \mod 2^h$.

Algorithm 14 can be modified as follows. Replace the definition of $\tau_k$ in Step 2) by $\tau_k = (r_k \mod 2^{k+1})/2^k$ and $y = (v + f_k) \mod 2$ at the end of Step 3), and replace the equation for $\tau_{k+1}$ in Step 4) by $\tau_{k+1} = (r_{k+1} - 2^k f_k) \mod 2^k$. Then, on pass $k$, assuming $f_0, f_1, \ldots, f_{k-1}$ have been determined correctly, Step 2) sets $y = (-1)^{j} (r_{k+1}) \mod 2$ and Step 3) uses the standard binary decoder for $RM_2(1, m)$ to find $f_k$ (and hence $f_k$) and $c_k$. The modified conditions for correcting the error $\epsilon$ defined by (19) are $|\epsilon_k - c_k| \leq 2^{m-2}$ for $k = 0, 1, \cdots, h - 1$. Both the original Algorithm 14 and this modification act as decoders for $RM_2(1, m)$ with respect to Hamming and Lee distance; beyond the limit guaranteed by the minimum distance of the code both perform well but neither is uniformly better than the other.

We now extend Algorithm 14 to decode efficiently an arbitrary union of cosets of $RM_2(k, 1, m)$. The supercode decoding method for decoding the union of cosets of a code $C$, as described in [11] for binary codes, involves subtracting each possible coset representative in turn from the received codeword and decoding the result as an element of $C$; the best decoding result in $C$ determines the coset representative. We shall modify this method by interleaving the subtraction of the coset representatives with the $h$ passes of Algorithm 14 to give a substantially faster algorithm (for $h > 1$) than would be obtained by applying Algorithm 14 in full to each coset of $RM_2(k, 1, m)$.

Algorithm 17—Decoding Algorithm for an Arbitrary Union of Cosets of $RM_2(k, 1, m)$:

1) Input the received codeword $r$ as a sequence over $Z_2^2$, of length $2^m$ and input the predetermined set $G = \{g\}$ of coset representatives of $RM_2(1, m)$. Set $k = 0$ and $\nu_0 = r$.

2) Let $\{z_1, z_2, \cdots, z_k\}$ be the distinct values of $g \mod 2^{k+1}$ as $g$ takes all values in $G$. Set $l = 1$ and $Y = 0$.

3) Define the sequence $y$ by

\[
(y)_i = 2^{k+m-1} - wt_2^{k+1}((r_k - \tau_k)_i)
\]

for $i = 0, 1, \cdots, 2^m - 1$.

4) Let $\hat{y}$ be the FHT of $y$ and determine a value of $j \in Z_2^m$ for which $(\hat{y})_j$ is an element of $\hat{y}$ of largest magnitude.

5) If $|(\hat{y})_j| > |Y|$ then set $Y = (\hat{y})_j$, $J = j$, and $L = l$.

6) If $l = s$ then go to Step 7). Else, increment $l$ and go to Step 3).

7) Let $w$ be 0 or 1 according as $Y$ is positive or negative, and let $(w_1, w_2, \cdots, w_m)$ be the binary representation of $J$. Set

\[
f_k = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} u_i x_i + w\right) \mod 2^{h-k}.
\]

Remove from $G$ each coset representative $g$ for which $g \mod 2^{h+1} \neq \tau_k$.

8) If $h = 1$ then output the decoded codeword

\[
(g + \cdots + f_{h-1} + 2^{l-2} f_{h-2} + \cdots + f_0) \mod 2^h
\]

for the single remaining $g \in G$. Else, set $\tau_{k+1} = (r_k - 2^k f_k) \mod 2^h$, then increment $k$ and go to Step 2).

In the case $h = 1$, Algorithm 17 reduces to the standard supercode decoding method and can be used to decode the binary coding schemes of Section IV (involving one or more cosets of $RM_2(1, m)$ in $RM_2(2, m)$). In the cases $h > 1$ we can use Algorithm 17 to decode efficiently the nonbinary coding schemes of Section IV (involving one or more cosets of $RM_2(1, m)$ in $ZRM_2(2, m)$).

Theorem 18: Let $G = \{g\}$ be a set of coset representatives of $RM_2(1, m)$ in $ZRM_2(2, m)$, let $c$ be a codeword of the code $\{g + RM_2(1, m) g \mid g \in G\}$ and let $e$ be a sequence over $Z_2^m$. Given the input $(c + e) \mod 2^h$, Algorithm 17 outputs $c$ provided that for $k = 0, 1, \cdots, h - 1$ we have

\[
w_{t2^{k+1}}(c) = \begin{cases} 2^{m+k-3}, & \text{if } G \text{ contains } g, g' \text{ which are equal modulo } 2^{h+1} \\ 2^{m+k-2}, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}
\]

Proof: The proof is similar to that of Theorem 15. Write $c = (g + \sum_{i=1}^{m} u_i x_i + u) \mod 2^h$ where $u_i, u \in Z_2^m$ and $g \in G$. Write $g$ uniquely as

\[
g = 2^{l-1} g_{h-1} + 2^{l-2} g_{h-2} + \cdots + g_0
\]

where each $g_k$ is a sequence over $Z_2$. Then

\[
c = (g + \cdots + f_{h-1} + 2^{l-2} f_{h-2} + \cdots + f_0) \mod 2^h
\]

and the received codeword $r = (c + e) \mod 2^h$ is given by

\[
r = 2^{l-1} (g_{h-1} + f_{h-1} + c_{h-1}) + 2^{l-2} (g_{h-2} + f_{h-2} + c_{h-2}) + \cdots + (g_0 + f_0 + c_0) \mod 2^h
\]

where $f_k$ and $c_k$ are as previously.

The algorithm has $h$ passes $0, 1, \cdots, h - 1$, and on pass $k$ we determine the value of $f_k$ and $g_k$ and discard any $g' \in G$ for which $g'_k \neq g_k$. On pass $k$ Steps 3)–6) perform an FHT for each remaining group of coset representatives in $G$ having the same value modulo $2^{h+1}$, and select one such group by finding a transform sequence element of largest magnitude among all the FHT’s. Assume that the values $f_0, f_1, \cdots, f_{k-1}$ and $g_0, g_1, \cdots, g_{k-1}$ have been determined correctly. Note that all the remaining coset representatives in $G$ must be equal modulo $2^h$. If they are all also equal modulo $2^{h+1}$ then $g_k$ is determined and $f_k$ can be recovered as in the proof of Theo-
rem 15 because by assumption \( \text{wt}_{2^{k+1}}(c) < 2^{m+k-2} \). Therefore, assume that \( G \) contains a coset representative \( g' \) for which
\[
g' \mod 2^{k+1} = 2^k g'_k + 2^{k-1} g_{k-1} + 2^{k-2} g_{k-2} + \cdots + g_0
\]
where \( g'_k \neq g_k \).

Suppose that Step 3) selects the value \( z_i = g' \mod 2^{k+1} \). Then Step 8 shows that
\[
(r_k - z_i) \mod 2^{k+1}
\]
\[
= (2^k((g_k - g'_k + f_k) \mod 2) + c) \mod (2^{k+1}) \mod 2^{k+1}
\]

By a similar argument to that used previously it follows that
\[
(\hat{g}_j) = 2^{k+1}((1) (g_k - g'_k + f_k) \mod 2) H_j - \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} d_{ij} \text{wt}_{2^{k+1}}((e_i))
\]

where each \( d_{ij} = (-1)^{(g_k - g'_k + f_k) \mod 2} H_{ij} \) takes the value 1 or -1 and \( H = (H_{ij}) \) is the Sylvester–Hadamard matrix of order \( 2^m \). Now \( f_k \mod 2 \) is a codeword in \( RM(1, m) \) and we see (by expressing \( g_k \) and \( g'_k \) in similar manner to (18)) that \( (g_k - g'_k) \mod 2 \) is a codeword in \( RM(2, m) \) \( RM(1, m) \).

Since the minimum Hamming distance of \( RM(2, m) \) is \( 2^m - 2 \) we conclude that \((1) (g_k - g'_k + f_k) \mod 2\) has magnitude at most \( 2^m - 2 \), \( 2^m - 2 = 2^{m-1} \) for each \( j \). Equation (22) then implies that \( (\hat{g}_j) \) has magnitude at most \( 2^{m+k-2} + \text{wt}_{2^{k+1}}(c) \) for each \( j \).

In contrast, if Step 3) selects the value \( z_i = g \mod 2^{k+1} \) we know from the proof of Theorem 15 that \( (\hat{g}_j) \) has magnitude exactly \( 2^{m+k-1} - \text{wt}_{2^{k+1}}(c) \) for a unique value of \( j \) and has magnitude at most \( \text{wt}_{2^{k+1}}(c) \) for each other \( j \). By assumption \( \text{wt}_{2^{k+1}}(c) < 2^{m+k-3} \) and, therefore, we can recover \( f_k \) and \( g_k \).

Corollary 19: Algorithm 17 acts as a decoder for an arbitrary union of cosets of \( RM(1, m) \) in \( ZRM(2, m) \) with respect to Hamming distance and with respect to Lee distance.

Proof: The proof for Hamming distance follows from Theorem 10 in similar manner to the proof of Corollary 16.

For Lee distance, note that the condition for \( k = 0 \) in Theorem 18 is \( \text{wt}_2(c) < 2^{m-2} \) because all coset representatives of \( RM(1, m) \) in \( ZRM(2, m) \) are equal modulo 2. The result follows from Theorems 10 and 18 since \( \text{wt}_{2^{k+1}}(c) \leq \text{wt}_{2^k}(c) \) for \( k = 0, 1, \ldots, h-1 \) and the Lee weight over \( Z_{2^k} \) of \( c \) is \( \text{wt}_{2^k}(c) \).

The number of encoding operations in \( RM(1, m) \) required by Algorithm 17 is \( h \). The number of FHT’s required is at least \( h \) and at most \( h + |G| - 1 \): if \( g, g' \in G \) are equal modulo \( 2^k \) but distinct modulo \( 2^{k+1} \) then the algorithm can choose between them using two FHT’s. In fact, the expected number of FHT’s can be less than \( h + |G| - 1 / 2 \) because the algorithm can choose between groups of coset representatives. For example, consider the code to be the union of the first 32 cosets of \( RM(1, 4) \) in \( ZRM(2, 4) \) listed in Tables V and VI (given as Option 4 in Table IX) and suppose the actual encoding scheme element of sufficiently large magnitude is encountered. Then, following the proof of Theorem 18, the conditions for correcting the error \( e \) improve from those given in Theorem 18 to
\[
\text{wt}_{2^{k+1}}(c) < \begin{cases} 
2^{k+1} - 3(2^m - 2^{m/2}) & \text{for } k = h - 1 \\
2^{m+k-2} & \text{for } k = 0, 1, \ldots, h - 2 
\end{cases}
\]

The coset representatives in \( G \) are all equal modulo \( 2^{k+1} \) except on pass \( h - 1 \); to speed up this pass we can optionally truncate the selection procedure for coset representatives modulo \( 2^{k+1} \), specified by Steps 3)–6), when a transform sequence element of sufficiently large magnitude is encountered. For example, the nonbinary coding schemes of Section IV involve cosets all belonging to the code \( ZRM(2, m) \). We know that in this case the original codeword \( c \) can be recovered subject to the conditions given in Theorem 18. If we assume that these conditions hold then the proof of the theorem shows that in the case \( s > 1 \) (when there is more than one coset representative modulo \( 2^{k+1} \) to choose from on pass \( k \)) the correct value of \( g_k \) is indicated uniquely when the magnitude of \( \langle \hat{g}_j \rangle \) calculated in Step 4) exceeds \( 2^{m+k-1} - 2^{m+k-3} = 3 \cdot 2^{m+k-3} \). Therefore, upon encountering such a value of \( \langle \hat{g}_j \rangle \) we can choose to ignore further coset representatives \( z_{2^k + 1}, z_{2^k + 2}, \ldots, z_s \) on this pass by replacing the condition \( l = s \) in Step 6) by the condition \( \text{wt}_2(c) > 3 \cdot 2^{m+k-3} \) or \( l = s \).

As a further example of this truncation technique, consider the nonbinary coding schemes of Section IV for which \( m \geq 4 \) and each coset representative in \( G \) is of the form \( 2^{k+1}g_{k-1} + RM(2, m) \). Consider the binary coset \( g_{k-1} + RM(2, m) \) belongs to a Kerdock code of length \( 2^m \). Then for distinct \( 2^{k+1}g_{k-1} + \text{wt}_{2^{k+1}}(c) \) in \( G \) we know from Section III that \( (g_{k-1} - g'_{k-1} + f_{k-1}) \mod 2 = 1 \) is a bent function and, therefore, that \((1) (g_{k-1} - g'_{k-1} + f_{k-1}) \mod 2 \) has magnitude \( 2^{m/2} \) for all \( j \). Then, following the proof of Theorem 18, the conditions for correcting the error \( e \) improve from those given in Theorem 18 to
\[
\text{wt}_{2^{k+1}}(c) < \begin{cases} 
2^{k+1} - 3(2^m - 2^{m/2}) & \text{for } k = h - 1 \\
2^{m+k-2} & \text{for } k = 0, 1, \ldots, h - 2 
\end{cases}
\]

The conditions for correcting the error \( e \) are \( \text{wt}_2(c) < 4 \). \( \text{wt}_2(c) < 8 \) and \( \text{wt}_2(c) < 12 \), and we can use a truncation criterion of \( |Y| > 20 \) on pass 2 of the decoding algorithm. As before, provided the conditions on the error \( e \) hold we can obtain the benefit of (potentially) reduced computation, by using the truncation technique, without affecting the ability of the algorithm to recover correctly the original codeword.

Algorithm 17 can be used for soft-decision decoding. It can also be modified, in similar manner to the modification of Algorithm 14 described earlier, to act as an alternative decoder for a union of cosets of \( RM(1, m) \) in \( ZRM(2, m) \) with respect to Hamming and Lee distance. Replace the definition of \( y \) in Step 3) by
\[
y = ((r_k - z_i) \mod 2^{k+1}) / 2^k \quad \text{and} \quad y = (-1)^{\nu}, \quad \text{calculate}
\]
The conditions, comparable to those in Theorem 18, for correcting the error \( \epsilon \) are then

\[
\text{wt}_2(c_k) < \begin{cases} 
2^{m-3}, & \text{if } G \text{ contains } g, g' \\
2^{m-2}, & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
\]

for \( k = 0, 1, \ldots, h - 1 \).

VI. CONCLUSION

The connection between Golay complementary sequences and second-order Reed–Muller codes, together with the coset ordering process, are the keys to obtaining the range of OFDM coding schemes with favorable properties described here. These schemes can be decoded efficiently using multiple fast Hadamard transforms and are highly suitable for certain practical applications.

We have shown that linear codes over rings, as introduced in [6] and popularized in [25], arise naturally as solutions to the OFDM power envelope problem. We have also shown that certain Golay sequences possess a high degree of intrinsic structure, whereas many other sequences defined by aperiodic autocorrelation constraints appear not to do so.

We conclude by noting some developments which occurred after submission of the original manuscript.

1) Performance: Jones and Wilkinson [27] demonstrated the potential improvement offered by certain of the OFDM coding schemes presented here by simulating their end-to-end system performance in a typical indoor radio environment. They also showed experimentally that a representative one of these coding schemes offers superior adjacent channel interference performance as compared with conventional OFDM coding schemes.

2) Decoding Algorithms: Independently of our work, Grant and van Nee [22], [23] derived decoding algorithms that provide alternative methods to Algorithm 14. Also independently of our work, Greferath and Vellinger [24] presented a decoding algorithm for a class of linear codes over rings, a special case of which is equivalent to the modification of Algorithm 14 described earlier. Paterson and Jones [39] found further decoding algorithms applicable to the generalized Reed–Muller codes introduced in this paper and compared their algorithms with each of the known alternatives in terms of both complexity and performance.

3) Theoretical Advances: Some of our numerical results have been explained in theoretical terms, as previously described in Section IV-D. In addition, Paterson [38] has developed and extended many of the ideas of this paper into a more general framework and in doing so has identified further OFDM coding schemes.

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