Construction of quantum codes based on self-dual orientable embeddings of complete multipartite graphs

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This paper presents four new classes of binary quantum codes with minimum distance 3 and 4, namely Class-I, Class-II, Class-III and Class-IV. The classes Class-I and Class-II are constructed based on self-dual orientable embeddings of the complete graphs $K_{4r+1}$ and $K_{4s}$ and by current graphs and rotation schemes. The parameters of two classes of quantum codes are $[[2r(4r+1), 2r(4r-3), 3]]$ and $[[2s(4s-1), 2(s-1)(4s-1), 3]]$ respectively, where $r \geq 1$ and $s \geq 2$. For these quantum codes, the code rate approaches 1 as $r$ and $s$ tend to infinity. The Class-III with rate $\frac{1}{2}$ and with minimum distance 4 is constructed by using self-dual embeddings of complete bipartite graphs. The parameters of this class are $[[rs, (r-2)(s-2), 4]]$, where $r$ and $s$ are both divisible by 4. The proposed Class-IV is of minimum distance 3 and code length $n = (2r+1)s^2$. This class is constructed based on self-dual embeddings of complete tripartite graph $K_{rs,s,s}$ and its parameters are $[[2(r+1)s^2, (rs-2)(s-1), 3]]$, where $r \geq 2$ and $s \geq 2$.

Keywords: quantum codes; embedding; orientable; self-dual; complete graphs; complete bipartite graphs; complete tripartite graphs.
1. Introduction

Quantum error-correcting codes (QECs) play an essential role in various quantum informational processes. In the theory of quantum computation, the information is stored in entangled states of quantum systems. Since the interaction with the system environment is inevitable, these interactions create noise that disrupt the encoded data and make mistakes. One of the most useful techniques to reduce the effects of these noise is applying the QECs. The first quantum code $[[9, 1, 3]]$ was discovered by Shor [1]. Calderbank et al. [2] introduced a systematic way for constructing the QEC from classical error-correcting code. The problem of constructing toric quantum codes has motivated considerable interest in the literature. This problem was generalized within the context of surface codes [8] and color codes [3]. The most popular toric code was proposed for the first time by Kitaev’s [5]. This code defined on a square lattice of size $m \times m$ on the torus. The parameters of this class of codes are $[[n, k, d]] = [[2m^2, 2, m]]$. In similar way, the authors in [7] have introduced a construction of topological quantum codes in the projective plane $\mathbb{R}P^2$. They showed that the original Shor’s 9-qubit repetition code is one of these codes which can be constructed in a planar domain.

Leslie proposed a new type of sparse CSS quantum error correcting codes based on the homology of hypermaps defined on an $m \times m$ square lattice [6]. The parameters of hypermap-homology codes are $[[((\frac{3}{2})m^2, 2, m]$. These codes are more efficient than Kitaev’s toric codes. This seemed suggests good quantum codes that is constructed by using hypergraphs. But there are other surface codes with better parameters than the $[[2m^2, 2, m]]$ toric code. There exist surface codes with parameters $[[m^2 + 1, 2, m]]$, called homological quantum codes. These codes were introduced by Bombin and Martin-Delgado [8].

Authors in [9] presented a new class of toric quantum codes with parameters $[[m^2, 2, m]]$, where $m = 2(l + 1), l \geq 1$. Sarvepalli [10] studied relation between surface codes and hypermap-homology quantum codes. He showed that a canonical hypermap code is identical to a surface code while a noncanonical hypermap code can be transformed to a surface code by CNOT gates alone. Li et al. [17] introduced a large number of good binary quantum codes of minimum distances five and six by Steane’s Construction. In [18] good binary quantum stabilizer codes obtained via graphs of Abelian and non-Abelian groups schemes. In [19], Qian presented a new method for constructing quantum codes from cyclic codes over finite ring $F_2 + vF_2$. In [20] two new classes of binary quantum codes with minimum distance of at least three presented by self-complementary self-dual orientable embeddings of voltage graphs and Paley graphs. In 2013 Korzhik [21] studied generating nonisomorphic quadrangular embeddings of a complete graph. In [22] M. Ellingham gave techniques to construct graph embeddings.

Our aim in this work is to present four new classes of binary quantum codes with parameters $[[2r(4r + 1), 2r(4r - 3), 3]], [[2s(4s - 1), 2(s - 1)(4s - 1), 3]], [[r, (r-2)(s-2), 4]]$ and $[[2r + 1)s^2, (rs - 2)(s - 1), 3]$ respectively, based on results of Pengelley [13], Archdeacon et al. [14] and Archdeacon [25] in self-dual orientable embeddings of the complete graphs $K_{4r+1}$ and $K_{4s}$, $(r \geq 1$ and $s \geq 2)$, complete bipartite graphs and complete multipartite graphs by current graphs and rotation schemes [23]. Binary quantum codes are defined by pair $(H_X, H_Z)$ of $\mathbb{Z}_2$-matrices
with $H_X H_Z^T = 0$. These codes have parameters $[[n, k, d_{\text{min}}]]$, where $k$ logical qubits are encoded into $n$ physical qubits with minimum distance $d_{\text{min}}$. A minimum distance $d_{\text{min}}$ code can correct all errors up to $\left\lfloor \frac{d_{\text{min}} - 1}{2} \right\rfloor$ qubits. The code rate for two classes of quantum codes of length $n = 2r(4r+1)$ and $n = 2s(4s-1)$ is determined by $k/n = \frac{2r(4r-3)}{2r(4r+1)}$ and $k/n = \frac{2(s-1)(4s-1)}{2s(4s-1)}$, and this rate approaches 1 as $r$ and $s$ tend to infinity.

The paper is organized as follows. The simplices definition, chain complexes and homology group are recalled in Section 2. In Section 3 we shall briefly present the current graphs and rotation schemes. In Section 4, we give a brief outline of self-dual orientable embeddings of the complete graph. Section 5 is devoted to present new classes of binary quantum codes by using self-dual orientable embeddings of the complete graphs $K_{4r+1}$ and $K_{4s}$, complete bipartite graphs, and complete tripartite graph $K_{rs,s,s}$. The paper is ended with a brief conclusion.

2. Homological algebra

In this section, we review some fundamental notions of homology spaces. For more detailed information about homology spaces, refer to [4], [12].

**Simplices.** Let $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$, $m \geq n$. Let moreover the set of points \(\{v_0, v_1, \ldots, v_n\}\) of $\mathbb{R}^m$ be geometrically independent. An $n$-simplex $\Delta$ is a subset of $\mathbb{R}^m$ given by

$$\Delta = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^m | x = \sum_{i=0}^{n} t_i v_i; 0 \leq t_i \leq 1; \sum_{i=0}^{n} t_i = 1\}. \quad (2.1)$$

**Chain complexes.** Let $K$ be a simplicial complex and $p$ a dimension. A $p$-chain is a formal sum of $p$-simplices in $K$. The standard notation for this is $c = \sum_i n_i \sigma_i$, where $n_i \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $\sigma_i$ is a $p$-simplex in $K$. Let $C_p(K)$ be the set of all $p$-chains in $K$. The boundary homomorphism $\partial_p : C_p(K) \rightarrow C_{p-1}(K)$ is defined as

$$\partial_p(\sigma) = \sum_{j=0}^{k} (-1)^j [v_0, v_1, \ldots, v_{j-1}, v_{j+1}, \ldots, v_k]. \quad (2.2)$$

The chain complex is the sequence of chain groups connected by boundary homomorphisms,

$$\cdots \xrightarrow{\partial_p} C_{p+1} \xrightarrow{\partial_{p+1}} C_p \xrightarrow{\partial_p} C_{p-1} \xrightarrow{\partial_{p-1}} \cdots \quad (2.3)$$

**Cycles and boundaries.** We are interested in two subgroups of $C_p(K)$, cycle and boundary groups. The $p$-th cycle group is the kernel of $\partial_p : C_p(K) \rightarrow C_{p-1}(K)$, and denoted as $Z_p = Z_p(K)$. The $p$-th boundary group is the image of $\partial_{p+1} : C_{p+1}(K) \rightarrow C_p(K)$, and denoted as $B_p = B_p(K)$.

**Definition 2.1** (Homology group, Betti number). The $p$-th homology group $H_p$
is the $p$-th cycle group modulo the $p$-th boundary group, $H_p = Z_p/B_p$. The $p$-th Betti number is the rank (i.e. the number of generators) of this group, $\beta_p = \text{rank } H_p$. So the first homology group $H_1$ is given as

$$H_1 = Z_1/B_1.$$ \hspace{1cm} (2.4)

From the algebraic topology, we can see that the group $H_1$ only depends, up to isomorphisms, on the topology of the surface [4]. In fact

$$H_1 \simeq Z_{2g},$$ \hspace{1cm} (2.5)

where $g$ is the genus of the surface, i.e. the number of “holes” or “handles”. We then have

$$|H_1| = 2^{2g}.$$ \hspace{1cm} (2.6)

### 3. Current graphs

Current graphs were invented before voltage graphs. These graphs are used in proof of Map Color Theorem, determination of minimum genus of complete graphs. Current graphs are dual of voltage graphs which apply to embedded voltage graphs. Faces of current graph correspond to vertices in voltage graph, and vice versa. We refer the reader to [23] for more details.

#### 3.1. Rotation schemes

Rotation schemes are important for applying the face-tracing. Let $G = (V,E)$ be a connected graph. Denote the vertex set of $G$ by $V(G) = \{1, 2, ..., n\}$. For each $i \in V(G)$, let $V(i) = \{k \in V(G) | \{i, k\} \in E(G)\}$. Let $p_i : V(i) \rightarrow V(i)$ be an oriented cyclic order (or a cyclic permutation) on $V(i)$, of length $n_i = |V(i)|$; $p_i$ ia called a rotation scheme, or rotation system. By combining the two concepts of rotation schemes and 2-cell embeddings we have the following theorem:

**Theorem 3.1.** Every rotation scheme for a graph $G$ induces a unique embedding of $G$ into an orientable surface. Conversely, every embedding of a graph into orientable surface induces a unique rotation scheme for $G$.

**Proof.** The Proof of this theorem is found in [16].

In proof of this theorem $D^* = \{(a,b) | \{a,b\} \in E(G)\}$, and $P^*$ as a permutation on the set $D^*$ of directed edges of $G$ is defined as

$$P^*(a,b) = (b, p_b(a)).$$ \hspace{1cm} (3.1)

The orbits under $P^*$ determine the (2-cell)faces of the corresponding embedding.
Often it is customary to represent a graph $G$ with rotation in the plane in such a way that a clockwise (or counterclockwise) reading of the edges incident with a vertex gives the rotation at that vertex. By convention, a solid vertex has its incident edges ordered clockwise; a hollow vertex, counterclockwise. For further information about rotation schemes, the reader is referred to Refs. [16, 24].

4. Self-dual orientable embeddings of complete graph

Let $S$ be a compact, connected, oriented surface (i.e. 2-manifold) with genus $g$. As shown by Pengelley [13], Euler’s Formula excludes self-dual orientable embeddings of $K_n$ unless $n \equiv 0$ or 1 (mod 4). Let $T$ be a self-dual embedding of $S$ and $\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \alpha_2$ denote respectively the number of vertices, edges and faces $T$. If the embedding is in $S$, then

$$\alpha_2 = \alpha_0 = n, \quad \alpha_1 = \frac{n(n-1)}{2},$$

and Euler’s Formula follows that

$$g = \frac{2 - \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 - \alpha_2}{2} = \frac{(n-1)(n-4)}{4}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (4.2)

Hence such an embedding can exist only if $n \equiv 0$ or 1 (mod 4). Since the embedding consists of $n$ faces, each face must be adjacent to every other along exactly one edge. Hence each face is an $(n-1)$-gon. Pengelley presented how to use current graphs and rotation schemes to describe an orientable embedding of $K_n$ having $n$ $(n-1)$-gons as faces, and then show such an embedding is self-dual [13]. Since we wish our faces to be $(n-1)$-gons, by the current graph construction principles is requiring that each vertex in the current graph be of valence $n-1$ [27].

In the case $n \equiv 1$ (mod 4), we select a group $\Gamma$ for which $K_{4r+1}$ is a Cayley color graph; in this case, we can only pick $\Gamma = \mathbb{Z}_{4r+1}$. Label the vertices $K_{4r+1}$ with the elements of $\Gamma$. Denote the faces by the numbers $0, 1, \ldots, n-1$. Then choose a certain orientation for each face. Write down the cyclic order of the faces adjacent to face 0. This gives a certain permutation of $1, 2, \ldots, n-1$. Do the same for the other faces. This leads to a scheme. The scheme for $K_{4r+1}$ is generated by the following 0 [13].

$$0, 1, -2, -1, 2, 3, -4, -3, 4, \ldots, 2k-1, -2k, -(2k-1), 2k, \ldots, 2r-1, -2r, -(2r-1), 2r$$

$$(1 \leq k \leq r).$$ \hspace{1cm} (4.3)

Explicit calculation gives the following cyclic sequence for the vertices of the face containing the directed edge from 0 to 1:

$$0, 1, 3, 2, 0, \ldots, 0, 2k-1, 4k-1, 2k, 0, \ldots, 0, 2r-1, 4r-1, 2r$$

$$(1 \leq k \leq r).$$ \hspace{1cm} (4.4)
In general, by explicit calculation from scheme, we obtain, for each \( i \in \mathbb{Z}_{4r+1} \), the cyclic sequence
\[
i, 1+i, 3+i, 2+i, i, \ldots, i, (2k-1)+i, (4k-1)+i, 2k+i, i, \ldots, i, (2r-1)+i, (4r-1)+i, 2r+i \quad (1 \leq k \leq r).
\] (4.5)
for the vertices of the face containing the directed edge \( e_i \), where \( e_i \) is an edge between vertices \( i \) and \( i+1 \).

In the case \( n \equiv 0 \) (mod 4), Pengelly [13] has used the following group
\[
G = \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_t
\]
where \( n = 2^st \), \( t \) is odd, and \( s \geq 2 \). There are precisely \( 2^s - 1 \) elements of order two. Pengelly in Ref. [13] released \( 2^s(t-1) \) elements with distinct inverses, and his choice \( a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots, a_{2^{s-1}(t-1)-1} \) from this collection such that they and their inverses deplete the collection. We label the elements of order two \( b_1, b_2, b_3, \ldots, b_{2^n-1} \).

From the elementary group theory, we can see that \( \sum_{i=1}^{2^n-1} b_i = 0 \). The scheme for \( K_{4s}(s \geq 2) \) is generated by the following 0 [13].

\[
0, a_1, -a_2, -a_1, a_2, a_3, -a_4, -a_3, a_4, \ldots, a_{2k-1}, -a_{2k}, -a_{(2k-1)}, a_{2k}, \ldots, a_{2^{s-1}(t-1)-1}, -a_{2^{s-1}(t-1)-1}, -a_{2^{s-1}(t-1)-1}, a_{2^{s-1}(t-1)-1}, b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_{2^n-1} \quad (1 \leq k \leq 2^{s-2}(t-1)).
\] (4.6)
This generates by the additive rule the entire scheme for \( K_{4s} \). Explicit calculation yield the following cyclic sequence for the vertices of the face containing the directed edge from 0 to \( a_1 \) [13]:

\[
0, a_1, a_1+a_2, a_2, 0, a_3, a_3+a_4, a_4, 0, \ldots, 0, a_{2k-1}, a_{2k-1}+a_{2k}, a_{2k}, 0, \ldots, 0, a_{2^{s-1}(t-1)-1}
\]

\[
+ a_{2^{s-1}(t-1)-1}, a_{2^{s-1}(t-1)-1}, 0, b_1, b_1 + b_2, b_1 + b_2 + b_3, \ldots, \sum_{l=1}^{2^n-2} b_l \quad (1 \leq k \leq 2^{s-2}(t-1)).
\] (4.7)

By calculation from scheme, we obtain, for each \( g \in G \), the cyclic sequence for the vertices of the face containing the directed edge from \( g \) to \( g + a_1 \):

\[
g, a_1+g, a_1+a_2+g, a_2+g, g, a_3+g, a_3+a_4+g, a_4+g, \ldots, g, a_{2k-1}+g, a_{2k-1}+a_{2k}+g,
\]

\[
g, \ldots, g, a_{2^{s-1}(t-1)-1} + a_{2^{s-1}(t-1)-1} + g, a_{2^{s-1}(t-1)-1} + g, g, b_1 + g, b_1 + b_2 + g,
\]

\[
b_1 + b_2 + b_3 + g, \ldots, g + \sum_{l=1}^{2^n-2} b_l \quad (1 \leq k \leq 2^{s-2}(t-1)).
\] (4.8)
5. Quantum codes from graphs on surfaces

The idea of constructing CSS (Calderbank-Shor-Steane) codes from graphs embedded on surfaces has been discussed in a number of papers. See for detailed descriptions e.g. [11]. Let \( X \) be a compact, connected, oriented surface (i.e. 2-manifold) with genus \( g \). A tiling of \( X \) is defined to be a cellular embedding of an undirected (simple) graph \( G = (V,E) \) in a surface. This embedding defines a set of faces \( F \). Each face is described by the set of edges on its boundary. This tiling of surface is denoted \( M = (V,E,F) \). The dual graph \( G^* \) is the graph \( G^* = (V^*,E^*) \) such that:

i) One vertex of \( G^* \) inside each face of \( G \),

ii) For each edge \( e \) of \( G \) there is an edge \( e^* \) of \( G^* \) between the two vertices of \( G^* \) corresponding to the two faces of \( G \) adjacent to \( e \).

It can be easily seen that, there is a bijection between the edges of \( G \) and the edges of \( G^* \).

There is an interesting relationship between the number of elements of a lattice embedded in a surface and its genus. The Euler characteristic of \( \chi \) is defined as its number of vertices (\(|V|\)) minus its number of edges (\(|E|\)) plus its number of faces (\(|F|\)), i.e.,

\[
\chi = |V| - |E| + |F|. \tag{5.1}
\]

For closed orientable surfaces we have

\[
\chi = 2(1 - g). \tag{5.2}
\]

The surface code associated with a tiling \( M = (V,E,F) \) is the CSS code defined by the matrices \( H_X \) and \( H_Z \) such that \( H_X \in \mathcal{M}_{|V|,|E|}(\mathbb{Z}_2) \) is the vertex-edge incidence matrix of the tiling and \( H_Z \in \mathcal{M}_{|F|,|E|}(\mathbb{Z}_2) \) is the face-edge incidence matrix of the tiling. Therefore, from \((X,G)\) is constructed a CSS code with parameters \([n,k,d]\), where \( n \) is the number of edges of \( G \), \( k = 2g \) (by (2.6)) and \( d \) is the shortest non-boundary cycle in \( G \) or \( G^* \). In this work, the minimum distance of quantum codes by a parity check matrix \( H \) (or generator matrix) is obtained. For a detailed information to compute the minimum distance, we refer the reader to [15].

5.1. New class of \([2r(4r+1),2r(4r-3),3]\) binary quantum codes from embeddings of \( K_{4r+1} \)

Our aim in this subsection is to construct a new class of binary quantum codes by using self-dual orientable embeddings of complete graphs. Let \( G = K_m \) be an embedding in an orientable surface \( S \). We know that \(|E(G)| = \frac{m(m-1)}{2} \). Also, from (4.2) with a self-dual embedding of complete graph on an orientable surface of genus
We know that if \( m = 4r + 1 \equiv 1 \) (mod 4), then \( g = \frac{(m-1)(m-4)}{4} = r(4r - 3) \).

Therefore, \( |E(G)| = 2r(4r + 1) \). By finding the vertex-edge incidence matrix \( H_X \) using the relation (4.3) and rotation schemes, and the face-edge incidence matrix \( H_Z \) by using (4.5), one can easily see that \( H_X H_Z^T = 0 \) and \( d_{\text{min}} = 3 \). Thus the code parameters are given by: the code minimum distance is \( d_{\text{min}} = 3 \); the code length is \( n = |E(G)| = 2r(4r + 1) \) and \( k = 2g = 2r(4r - 3) \). Consequently, the class of codes with parameters \([2r(4r + 1), 2r(4r - 3), 3], (r \geq 1)\) is obtained.

**Example 5.1.1.** Let \( m = 5 = 4 \times 1 + 1 \equiv 1 \) (mod 4). Then \( n = |E(G)| = 10 \) and \( k = 2g = 2 \). For determining \( d_{\text{min}} \) by using rotation schemes, by the following Figure 1 we have:

![Figure 1: A rotation embedding \( K_5 \) in the torus](image)

0. 2 4 3 1
1. 3 0 4 2
2. 4 1 0 3
3. 0 2 1 4
4. 1 3 2 0

By rotation schemes, we get the following vertex-edge and face-edge matrices respectively:

\[
H_X = \begin{pmatrix}
1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1
\end{pmatrix}
\]
\begin{equation*}
H_Z = \begin{pmatrix}
1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\
\end{pmatrix}
\end{equation*}

One can easily see that $H_X H_Z^T = 0$ and $d_{\text{min}} = 3$. Therefore, the code with parameters $[[10, 2, 3]]$ is obtained.

In the above figure the torus is recovered from the rectangle by identifying its left and right sides and simultaneously identifying its top and bottom sides.

**Example 5.1.2.** Let $m = 9 = 4 \times 2 + 1 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. Then $n = |E(G)| = 36$ and $k = 2g = 20$. For determining $H_X$ and $H_Z$ by using (4.3) and rotation schemes, we have:

\begin{align*}
0. & \quad 1 \ 7 \ 8 \ 2 \ 3 \ 5 \ 6 \ 4 \\
1. & \quad 2 \ 8 \ 0 \ 3 \ 4 \ 6 \ 7 \ 5 \\
2. & \quad 3 \ 0 \ 1 \ 4 \ 5 \ 7 \ 8 \ 6 \\
3. & \quad 4 \ 1 \ 2 \ 5 \ 6 \ 8 \ 0 \ 7 \\
4. & \quad 5 \ 2 \ 3 \ 6 \ 7 \ 0 \ 1 \ 8 \\
5. & \quad 6 \ 3 \ 4 \ 7 \ 8 \ 1 \ 2 \ 0 \\
6. & \quad 7 \ 4 \ 5 \ 8 \ 0 \ 2 \ 3 \ 1 \\
7. & \quad 8 \ 5 \ 6 \ 0 \ 1 \ 3 \ 4 \ 2 \\
8. & \quad 0 \ 6 \ 7 \ 1 \ 2 \ 4 \ 5 \ 3
\end{align*}

(5.3)

Also, by using (3.1), (4.4) and (4.5), we obtain the following cyclic sequence for the vertices of the face containing the directed edge for each $i \in \mathbb{Z}_9$

\begin{align*}
(0) & \quad 0 \ 1 \ 3 \ 2 \ 0 \ 3 \ 7 \ 4 \\
(1) & \quad 1 \ 2 \ 4 \ 3 \ 1 \ 4 \ 8 \ 5 \\
(2) & \quad 2 \ 3 \ 5 \ 4 \ 2 \ 5 \ 0 \ 6 \\
(3) & \quad 3 \ 4 \ 6 \ 5 \ 3 \ 6 \ 1 \ 7 \\
(4) & \quad 4 \ 5 \ 7 \ 6 \ 4 \ 7 \ 2 \ 8 \\
(5) & \quad 5 \ 6 \ 8 \ 7 \ 5 \ 8 \ 3 \ 0
\end{align*}

(5.4)
By using (5.3) and (5.4) we obtain the following vertex-edge and face-edge matrices respectively:

$$H_X = (A_1 | A_2)$$

where

$$A_1 = \begin{pmatrix}
1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
\end{pmatrix}$$

$$A_2 = \begin{pmatrix}
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\
\end{pmatrix}$$

$$H_Z = (B_1 | B_2)$$

where

$$B_1 = \begin{pmatrix}
1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
\end{pmatrix}$$
One can easily see that $H_XH_Z^T = 0$ and $d_{\text{min}} = 3$. Therefore, the code with parameters $[[36, 20, 3]]$ is obtained.

5.2. New class of $[[2s(4s - 1), 2(s - 1)(4s - 1), 3]]$ binary quantum codes from embeddings of $K_{4s}$

The construction of this class will be based on self-dual orientable embeddings of complete graph $K_{4s}$.

Let $G = (V, E)$ be a self-dual graph on $4s$ vertices. From (4.1), we know that $|E(G)| = 2s(4s - 1)$. Also, from (4.2) we know that $g = (s - 1)(4s - 1)$. Therefore, the code length is $n = |E(G)| = 2s(4s - 1)$ and $k = 2g = 2(s - 1)(4s - 1)$. With finding the matrices $H_X$ and $H_Z$ using the relations (4.6), (4.7) and (4.8), one can see that $H_XH_Z^T = 0$ and $d_{\text{min}} = 3$. Consequently, the class of codes with parameters $[[2s(4s - 1), 2(s - 1)(4s - 1), 3]], (s \geq 2)$ is constructed.

5.3. New class of $[[rs, \frac{(r - 2)(s - 2)}{2}, 4]]$ binary quantum codes from embeddings of complete bipartite graphs

Let the complete bipartite graph $G = K_{r,s}$ be an embedding in $S_g$ (the orientable 2-manifold of genus $g$). The graph $K_{r,s}$ has $r + s$ vertices divided into two subsets, one of size $r$ and the other of size $s$. The number of edges in a complete bipartite graph $K_{r,s}$ is $|E| = rs$. From Ref. [23] and the following theorem, the genus of the complete bipartite graph $K_{r,s}$ is given as

$$g = \frac{(r - 2)(s - 2)}{4}$$

(5.5)

where $r$ and $s$ are both divisible by 4

**Theorem 5.3.1.** $K_{r,s}$ has both an orientable and a nonorientable self-dual embedding for all even integers $r$ and $s$ exceeding 2, except that there is no orientable self-dual embedding of $K_{6,6}$. 

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Proof. The Proof of this theorem is found in [14].

In the complete bipartite graph $G = K_{r,s}$, where $r$ and $s$ are both divisible by 4, we know that $|E(G)| = rs$. Since in this self-dual embedding on an orientable surface the code minimum distance is four. Thus, the code parameters are given by: the code minimum distance $d_{\text{min}} = 4$; the code length is $n = |E(G)| = rs$ and $k = 2g = \frac{(r-2)(s-2)}{2}$. Consequently, the new class of codes with parameters $[[rs, \frac{(r-2)(s-2)}{2}, 4]]$ is obtained.
Example 5.3.1. In Figure 2 we give a self-dual embedding of $K_{4,4}$ into the torus. In this figure the top of the rectangle is identified with the bottom and the left with the right to recover the torus.

![Figure 2: A self-dual embedding of $K_{4,4}$ in the torus](image)

In this figure the primal graph is shown by solid lines, while the dual graph is drawn with dotted lines. The vertex bipartitions are $\{a,b,c,d\}$ vs. $\{1,2,3,4\}$. Since in this figure the shortest non-boundary cycle in the primal graph or the dual graph is 4. So, $d_{\text{min}} = 4$. Also, we have $n = 4 \times 4 = 16$, the number of edges and $k = 2g = 2 \times \frac{(4-2)(4-2)}{4}$ (by (5.3)). Hence, a $[[16,2,4]]$ code is obtained.

5.4. New class of $[[2r+1)s^2,(rs-2)(s-1),3]]$ binary quantum codes from embeddings of complete tripartite graph $K_{rs,s,s}$

Let $G = K_{rs,s,s}$ be a complete tripartite embedded on a closed surface. The graph $K_{rs,s,s}$ has $rs + s + s$ vertices. The number of edges in a complete tripartite graph $K_{rs,s,s}$ is $|E| = rss + rss + s^2 = (2r+1)s^2$. From Ref. [26], the genus of the complete tripartite graph $K_{rs,s,s}$ is given as

$$g = \frac{(rs-2)(s-1)}{2} \quad (5.6)$$

Theorem 5.4.1. The complete multipartite graph $K_{m(n)}$, $m \geq 2$, has both an orientable and a nonorientable self-dual embeddings except in the following cases:

(1) When the surface is orientable: $n$ is odd and $m \equiv 2$ or 3 (mod 4), or when the graph is $K_{6,6}$, or possibly when the graph is $K_{4(2)}$ or $K_{6(2)}$.

(2) When the surface is nonorientable: the graph is $K_n$, where $n \leq 5$, or when the graph is $K_{6(3)}$.

Proof. The Proof of this theorem is found in [25].
In the complete tripartite graph $K_{rs,s,s}$, we know that $|E| = (2r + 1)s^2$. Since in this self-dual embedding (except the Case 1 of the above theorem) on an orientable surface the code minimum distance is three. Thus, the code parameters are given by: the code minimum distance $d_{\text{min}} = 3$; the code length is $n = |E(G)| = (2r+1)s^2$ and $k = 2g = (rs - 2)(s - 1)$. Consequently, the new class of codes with parameters $[[(2r+1)s^2, (rs - 2)(s - 1), 3]]$ is constructed.

6. Conclusion

We considered presentation of four new classes of binary quantum codes based on self-dual orientable embeddings of the complete graphs $K_{4r+1}$ and $K_{4s}$, ($r \geq 1$ and $s \geq 2$), complete bipartite graph $K_{r,s}$, and complete tripartite graph $K_{rs,s,s}$ by using current graphs and rotation schemes. These codes are superior to quantum codes presented in other references. We point out the classes $[[2r(4r+1), 2r(4r-3), 3]]$ and $[[2s(4s-1), 2(s-1)(4s-1), 3]]$ of quantum codes achieve the best ratio $k/n$. For new classes $[[rs, \frac{(r-2)(s-2)}{2}, 4]]$ and $[[((2r+1)s^2, (rs - 2)(s - 1), 3]]$ of codes, the code rate $\frac{k}{n}$ approaches to $\frac{1}{2}$.

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