

activation time sensitivity to hyperpolarization (8). The S2-S3 linker is also directed toward the S4/C-linker interface and may play a yet-unknown role in channel gating.

## Summary

The structure of rEag1 reveals a non-domain swapped architecture of the S1 to S6 that is due to a short five-residue S4-S5 linker. This represents a divergence from the domain-swapped architecture of previous voltage-gated ion channel structures (Fig. 4) (1–4) and suggests a new paradigm for voltage-dependent gating for the Eag family of  $K_v$  channels. On the basis of the structure of Eag1, we propose a gating mechanism in which S4 enters the cytoplasm in a down or hyperpolarized state to interact with and induce a rotation of the C-linker and S6 in a direction that tightens the helical bundle to close the channel (Fig. 6B). In the up or depolarized state of the VS, S4 moves into the membrane, which allows the C-linker and S6 to rotate in a direction that loosens the helical bundle and thus relieves the high-energy bend in S6 to open the channel (Fig. 6B).

Two important consequences result from a gating mechanism in which the VS interacts with the cytoplasmic domains to gate the channel. First, this allows the cytoplasmic domains to close the channel independent of VS conformation. This is observed in the structure of Eag1, as binding of CaM to the cytoplasmic domains closes the pore, but the VS is in the up or depolarized conformation. Second, this provides an added level of regulation through the interaction of intracellular domains with the voltage-dependent gating machinery. In Eag1, the N terminus of the PAS domain, which confers sensitivity to hyperpolarization (8), is poised to interact with the S4 and S4-S5 linker in a closed conformation (Fig. 5D).

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## SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

www.sciencemag.org/content/353/6300/664/suppl/DC1  
Materials and Methods  
Figs. S1 to S9  
References (44–65)

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## PHYSICS

# Laser spectroscopy of muonic deuterium

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The deuteron is the simplest compound nucleus, composed of one proton and one neutron. Deuteron properties such as the root-mean-square charge radius  $r_d$  and the polarizability serve as important benchmarks for understanding the nuclear forces and structure. Muonic deuterium  $\mu d$  is the exotic atom formed by a deuteron and a negative muon  $\mu^-$ . We measured three 2S-2P transitions in  $\mu d$  and obtain  $r_d = 2.12562(78)$  fm, which is 2.7 times more accurate but  $7.5\sigma$  smaller than the CODATA-2010 value  $r_d = 2.1424(21)$  fm. The  $\mu d$  value is also  $3.5\sigma$  smaller than the  $r_d$  value from electronic deuterium spectroscopy. The smaller  $r_d$ , when combined with the electronic isotope shift, yields a “small” proton radius  $r_p$ , similar to the one from muonic hydrogen, amplifying the proton radius puzzle.

**P**recision spectroscopy of atomic energy levels can be used to determine properties of the nucleus ( $I$ ). Deuterium (D), for example, is a heavier isotope of hydrogen (H), with a nucleus, the deuteron (d), composed of one proton and one neutron (2). D was dis-

covered through a tiny shift in the Balmer spectral lines of D-enriched hydrogen (3). This shift is caused mainly by the mass difference between the proton and the deuteron. Today, the nuclear masses are accurately known from cyclotron frequency measurements in a Penning trap

( $I$ ), and the measured isotope shift of the 1S-2S transition in H and D ( $4$ ) determines the (squared) deuteron-proton charge radius difference ( $5$ )

$$\delta^{(2)}(\text{H, D}) \equiv r_d^2 - r_p^2 = 3.82007(65) \text{ fm}^2 \quad (1)$$

This is because the wave function of atomic S states is maximal at the origin, where the nucleus resides, and the wave function overlap with the extended nuclear charge distribution reduces the atomic binding energy. Equation 1 links measurements of transition frequencies in H and D. These, together with elastic electron scattering on protons ( $6$ ) and deuterons ( $7$ ), determine the Rydberg constant  $R_\infty$ ,  $r_p$  and  $r_d$  in the CODATA adjustment of the fundamental physical constants ( $I$ ).

Muonic atoms are a special class of “exotic” atoms that offer access to nuclear properties with much higher accuracy. In a muonic atom, the nucleus is orbited by one negative muon  $\mu^-$ , instead of the usual electrons  $e^-$ . The muon’s larger mass  $m_\mu = 207m_e$  results in a muonic Bohr radius that is smaller than the corresponding electronic Bohr radius by the ratio of reduced masses  $m_{\text{red}} = m_\ell m_{\text{nuc}} / (m_\ell + m_{\text{nuc}})$ . Here  $m_\ell$  is the mass of the lepton (muon  $\mu^-$  or electron  $e^-$ ), and  $m_{\text{nuc}}$  is the mass of the nucleus. As the Bohr radius shrinks proportionally to  $1/m_{\text{red}}$ , the overlap of the muon’s wave function with the nuclear charge distribution increases as  $m_{\text{red}}^3$ . For  $\mu\text{d}$ ,  $m_{\text{red}} = 196m_e$ , and the wave function overlap is  $(m_{\text{red}}/m_e)^3 \approx 10^7$  larger in  $\mu\text{d}$  than in D. A measurement of the Lamb shift (2P-2S energy difference) in  $\mu\text{d}$  is therefore extremely sensitive to the deuteron charge radius  $r_d$ .

Our recent measurements of the Lamb shift in muonic hydrogen  $\mu\text{p}$  have resulted in a value of the proton charge radius  $r_p = 0.84087(39)$  fm, which is 10 times more accurate, but 4%, or  $7\sigma$ , smaller ( $8, 9$ ) than the CODATA-2010 value ( $I$ ), which is the most recently published CODATA compilation. This so-called “proton radius puzzle”

has questioned the correctness of various experiments or quantum electrodynamics (QED) calculations, the value of the Rydberg constant, our understanding of the proton structure, or the standard model of particle physics ( $10, 11$ ).

Here we present measurements of the three 2S-2P transitions in  $\mu\text{d}$  highlighted in Fig. 1, yielding a precise value of  $r_d$ . The principle of the experiment is to form  $\mu\text{d}$  atoms in the metastable 2S state ( $12$ ) and to measure the 2S-2P transitions by pulsed laser spectroscopy. Comparison with theory ( $13$ ) reveals  $r_d$ . The muonic deuterium data presented here were acquired in the same measurement period as the muonic hydrogen data in ( $8, 9$ ). Independent and reliable calculations of QED ( $14$ – $17$ ) and nuclear structure effects ( $18$ – $22$ ) in  $\mu\text{d}$ , which are required to interpret the experiment, have recently become available and are summarized in ( $13$ ).

### Measurement of the spectral lines of muonic deuterium

The experiment has been described before ( $8, 9$ ). In brief, a  $5 \times 12 \text{ mm}^2$  beam of low-energy negative muons  $\mu^-$  (3-keV kinetic energy, average rate 600/s) is stopped in a 20-cm-long target filled with 1 hPa of  $\text{D}_2$  gas at  $20^\circ\text{C}$ . A pulsed laser system ( $23, 24$ ) is triggered on the detection of a single arriving muon and provides pulses with an energy of  $\sim 0.25$  mJ, tunable around a wavelength of  $6 \mu\text{m}$ , and calibrated against water vapor absorption lines known within a few megahertz ( $25$ ). A multipass mirror cavity ( $26$ ) ensures good laser illumination of the muon stop volume. Large-area avalanche photo diodes ( $27, 28$ ) detect the 2-keV  $K_\alpha$  x-rays from the radiative  $2\text{P} \rightarrow 1\text{S}$  transition that follows the laser-induced  $2\text{S} \rightarrow 2\text{P}$  excitation of  $\mu\text{d}$ . The laser frequency is changed every few hours, and the resonances displayed in Fig. 2 are obtained by plotting the number of 2-keV x-rays (normalized to the number of stopped muons) detected in time coincidence with the laser pulse, as a function of laser frequency. On the peak of the resonance, we recorded up to 10 laser-induced x-rays (“events”) per hour with all data reduction cuts ( $9$ ) applied. The background level of about 2 events per hour originates mainly from misidentified muon decay electrons. About a third of the recorded events are without laser light, providing the expected background level shown as horizontal bands in Fig. 2. The resonances are fitted with a flat background plus a Lorentzian line shape model that takes into account varying laser pulse energies and saturation effects.

The three resonances shown in Fig. 2 are the  $\mu\text{d}$  transitions  $2\text{S}_{1/2}^{F=3/2} \rightarrow 2\text{P}_{3/2}^{F=5/2}$ ,  $2\text{S}_{1/2}^{F=1/2} \rightarrow 2\text{P}_{3/2}^{F=3/2}$ , and  $2\text{S}_{1/2}^{F=1/2} \rightarrow 2\text{P}_{3/2}^{F=1/2}$ , abbreviated as #1, #2, and #3, respectively. Their positions and uncertainties are

$$\nu_1 = 50816.27 \pm 0.84(\text{stat}) \pm 0.35(\text{syst}) \text{ GHz} \quad (2)$$

$$\nu_2 = 52061.2 \pm 2.0(\text{stat}) \pm 0.35(\text{syst}) \text{ GHz} \quad (3)$$

$$\nu_3 = 52154.1 \pm 2.2(\text{stat}) \pm 0.35(\text{syst}) \text{ GHz} \quad (4)$$

The systematic uncertainties of 0.35 GHz arise from laser frequency fluctuations ( $8$ ) and Zeeman shifts from a conceivable small admixture of circular polarized light and the 5 T magnetic field of the muon beam line. Line-pulling effects from off-resonant excitation of neighboring levels are negligible ( $29$ ).

### Deuteron charge radius

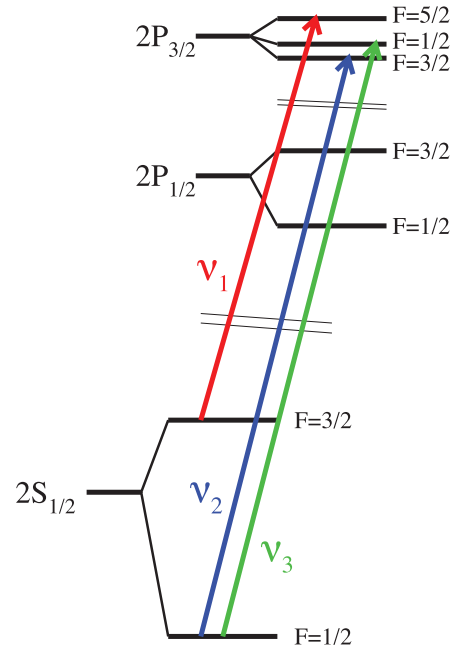
For the fit of line #1, the Lorentzian width was fixed to the natural radiative line width of  $\Gamma = 19.5$  GHz ( $8, 9$ ), as the freely fitted value  $\Gamma = 13.1$  GHz is  $2.6\sigma$  too small. Both fits agreed on the line center within 0.33 GHz, and the uncertainty quoted in Eq. 2 is the larger one from the fit with fixed width. The difference  $\nu_3 - \nu_2 = 92.9 \pm 3.0$  GHz from the fit is in good agreement ( $1.5\sigma$ ) with the theoretical value of 88.045 GHz ( $13$ ). The amplitude of line #3 is larger than zero only with a significance of  $4.5\sigma$ , but it serves to identify line #2 unambiguously. The alternative—namely, that the left peak in Fig. 2 (bottom) is in fact line #3—is disfavored with  $6.9\sigma$  significance thanks to the absence of a peak with twice the amplitude  $\sim 90$  GHz left of line #2.

Combining the three measured frequencies and using the theoretical 2P fine structure and  $2\text{P}_{3/2}$  hyperfine splittings ( $13$ ), we determine the 2P-2S Lamb shift (LS) and 2S hyperfine splitting (HFS) in  $\mu\text{d}$

$$\Delta E_{\text{LS}}^{\text{exp}} = 202.8785(31)_{\text{stat}}(14)_{\text{syst}} \text{ meV} \quad (5)$$

$$\Delta E_{\text{HFS}}^{\text{exp}} = 6.2747(70)_{\text{stat}}(20)_{\text{syst}} \text{ meV} \quad (6)$$

with total experimental uncertainties of 0.0034 and 0.0073 meV, respectively. The measured 2S



**Fig. 1.  $n = 2$  levels in muonic deuterium.** The order of the  $2\text{P}_{3/2}$  sublevels is changed by the nuclear quadrupole moment ( $13$ ). The three measured transitions are indicated.

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HFS is in excellent agreement with the theoretical value,  $\Delta E_{\text{HFS}}^{\text{theo}} = 6.2791(50)$  meV (13).

The Lamb shift in  $\mu\text{d}$  is extraordinarily sensitive (13) to the root mean square (RMS) deuteron charge radius

$$\Delta E_{\text{LS}}^{\text{theo}} = 228.7766(10) \text{ meV} + \Delta E_{\text{LS}}^{\text{TPE}} \quad (7)$$

$$-6.1103(3) r_{\text{d}}^2 \text{ meV/fm}^2$$

where

$$\Delta E_{\text{LS}}^{\text{TPE}}(\text{theo}) = 1.7096(200) \text{ meV} \quad (8)$$

is the deuteron polarizability contribution (13) from two-photon exchange (TPE), recently calculated

with good accuracy (18–22). The charge radius effect in Eq. 7 contributes as much as 14% to the 2P–2S Lamb shift, which explains the excellent sensitivity of our measurement to  $r_{\text{d}}$ . We obtain  $r_{\text{d}}$  from equating Eqs. 5 and 7, and using Eq. 8, which yields

$$r_{\text{d}}(\mu\text{d}) = 2.12562(13)_{\text{exp}}(77)_{\text{theo}} \text{ fm} \quad (9)$$

where the theory uncertainty is almost exclusively from  $\Delta E_{\text{LS}}^{\text{TPE}}$  (Eq. 8). This radius is in  $7.5\sigma$  disagreement with the CODATA value (1), which is the best estimate of the deuteron radius obtained from precision spectroscopy of H

and D and electron scattering on protons and deuterons,

$$r_{\text{d}}(\text{CODATA}) = 2.1424(21) \text{ fm} \quad (10)$$

(see Fig. 3). We are hence faced with the fact that precision determinations of the Lamb shift in both  $\mu\text{p}$  and  $\mu\text{d}$ , from a total of five measured resonances, each show a  $\geq 7\sigma$  discrepancy to the predictions based on fundamental physical constants from the self-consistent CODATA world average (1), carefully checked QED calculations (13, 30), and physics within the standard model.

The CODATA deuteron radius  $r_{\text{d}}$  is tightly linked to the CODATA proton radius  $r_{\text{p}}$ , by virtue of Eq. 1. However, as detailed in (31), we have deduced a deuteron charge radius considering spectroscopy data in regular deuterium alone—i.e., without relying on the value of the proton radius. This yields a value of

$$r_{\text{d}}(\text{D spectroscopy}) = 2.1415(45) \text{ fm} \quad (11)$$

in excellent agreement with the CODATA value, but  $3.5\sigma$  larger than the value obtained here from muonic deuterium (see Fig. 3, blue point, “D spectroscopy”).

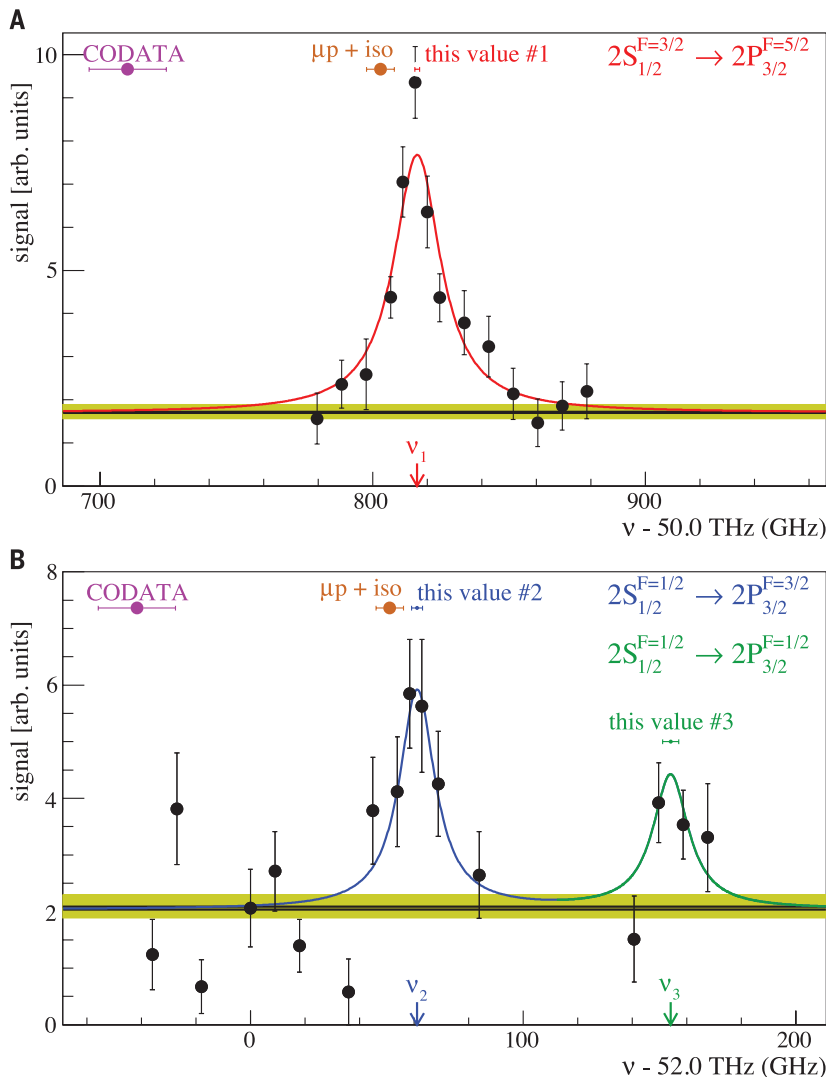
This distinct  $3.5\sigma$  discrepancy between the atomic physics determinations of  $r_{\text{d}}$  from D and  $\mu\text{d}$  is almost as severe as the  $4.0\sigma$  atomic physics discrepancy between the  $r_{\text{p}}$  values from H spectroscopy [see (1), table XXXVIII, adjustment 8] and  $\mu\text{p}$  (9) (see Fig. 4). These two discrepancies are independent, as explained in (31).

The difference between the deuteron radii from the spectroscopy of electronic and muonic deuterium is only 0.017 fm, or 0.8%. Thus, even though the deuteron charge radius  $r_{\text{d}}$  (e–d scatt.) = 2.130(10) fm, extracted from elastic electron–deuteron scattering (7), is accurate to 0.5%, it is unfortunately not accurate enough to distinguish between the values from  $\mu\text{d}$  and CODATA.

### Proton and deuteron radius puzzle

Many attempts to explain the proton radius discrepancy exist (10, 11). Our muonic deuterium result provides fresh insight, as the so-called “proton radius puzzle” is in fact not limited to the proton; there is a distinct deuteron radius puzzle. Using  $r_{\text{d}}$  (CODATA) in Eq. 7 yields a Lamb shift that is  $\epsilon_{\text{LS}}(\mu\text{d}) = 0.438(59)$  meV smaller than the measured value, Eq. 5, and hence resonance frequencies that are  $\sim 104$  GHz smaller than observed (Fig. 2). The  $\epsilon_{\text{LS}}(\mu\text{d})$  is even somewhat larger than the proton radius discrepancy  $\epsilon_{\text{LS}}(\mu\text{p}) = 0.329(47)$  meV between the LS we observed in  $\mu\text{p}$  and the one calculated with the CODATA value of  $r_{\text{p}}$  (9).

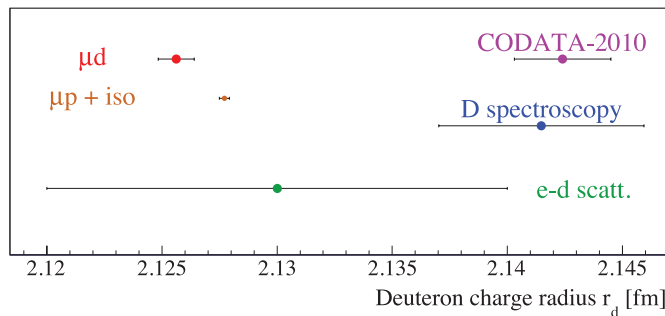
The ratio of discrepancies in  $\mu\text{d}$  and  $\mu\text{p}$ ,  $\epsilon_{\text{LS}}(\mu\text{d})/\epsilon_{\text{LS}}(\mu\text{p}) = 1.3(2)$  is in agreement with the ratio of the wave-function overlap from the reduced mass ratio,  $[m_{\text{red}}(\mu\text{d})/m_{\text{red}}(\mu\text{p})]^3 = 1.17$ . Such a scaling is expected for several beyond–standard model (BSM) physics scenarios (10, 11, 32–34), where a new force between muons and protons is



**Fig. 2. Three measured resonances in muonic deuterium.** The resonances are labeled #1 (A), and #2 and #3 (B). The signal (y axis) is “normalized number of events” as described in (8). Predicted resonance positions are shown based on Eqs. 7 and 8: The CODATA-2010 deuteron radius (pink, Eq. 10) would correspond to  $\sim 104$  GHz lower resonance positions, which is a difference of  $7.5\sigma$ . The “expected” deuteron radius Eq. 13, (“ $\mu\text{p} + \text{iso}$ ,” brown) obtained by combining the proton radius from muonic hydrogen (9) and the electronic isotope shift (“iso”), Eq. 1, is consistent with the observed resonance positions within  $\sim 2.6\sigma$ . The top and bottom panel’s data were recorded in 1 week and 2 days, respectively. As an example, the three highest points around the peak of resonance #1 contain a total of 260 events, recorded in 21 hours.

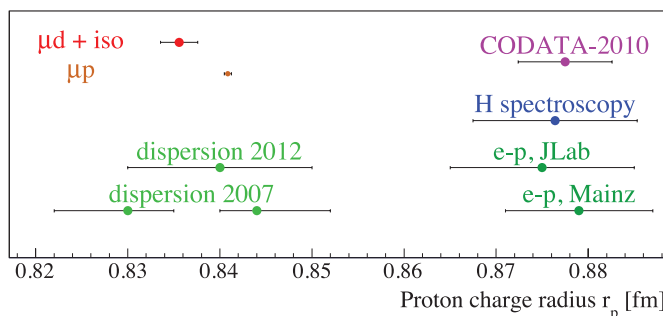
**Fig. 3. Deuteron radii.**

Our value Eq. 9 (“ $\mu$ d,” red) has a  $7.5\sigma$  discrepancy with the CODATA-2010 value (1), but is within  $2.6\sigma$  of the smaller “expected” value Eq. 13 (“ $\mu$ p + iso,” brown, see text), obtained by combining the proton radius from muonic hydrogen (9) and the electronic isotope shift, Eq. 1. The value from laser spectroscopy of electronic deuterium (“D spectroscopy,” blue, Eq. 11) is obtained as detailed in (31) and is  $3.5\sigma$  larger than the  $\mu$ d value. The world average from elastic e-d scattering (7) (“e-d scatt.,” green) is also shown.



**Fig. 4. Proton radii.**

Shown are the values deduced from muonic hydrogen (9) (“ $\mu$ p,” brown) and from muonic deuterium (Eq. 9, “ $\mu$ d + iso,” red), which both differ by  $>7\sigma$  from the CODATA-2010 value (1). Many other determinations exist, and we highlight the values from spectroscopy of H (but not D), from CODATA-2010 [(1), table XXXVIII, adjustment 8] (“H spectroscopy,” blue); elastic electron-proton scattering (dark green) from (6) and (47); and electron scattering data analyses based on dispersion relations (light green), both less recent (48) and more recent (49) than the  $\mu$ p value (8, 9). Many more values exist (50).



responsible for the change in the observed LS and can at the same time explain the long-standing  $\sim 3.5\sigma$  discrepancy in the muon g-2 value (35). In these models, the coupling of such a new force to neutrons must be negligible to fulfill other experimental constraints. The same scaling is also expected for explanations based on an unexpectedly large TPE contribution to proton polarizability (36), or an effect of a “sea of leptons” inside the proton (37, 38).

Before resorting to BSM solutions, however, one should investigate what it would take to “solve” the two discrepancies within SM physics. As noted before (8–11), and explained in more detail in (31), the reconciliation of electronic and muonic spectroscopy data still requires rather drastic measures.

For one, the CODATA Rydberg constant could be wrong by  $\sim 7\sigma$ —for example, because of a yet-undiscovered, common systematic effect in the most precise measurements of transitions from the 2S to the 8S, 8D, and 12D states in H and D (39). Such a change of  $R_\infty$  would shift the proton radius from H to the smaller  $\mu$ p value (8–10, 31). It would also bring the deuteron radius from D to within  $\sim 2.5\sigma$  of the  $\mu$ d value (see below).

Alternatively, the QED theory of the Lamb shift in electronic H and D could be missing a large

contribution of  $\sim 110$  kHz, which corresponds to about 44 times the claimed theory uncertainty ( $44\sigma$ ) of  $\sim 2.5$  kHz. Such a missing QED contribution would bring the charge radii from H and D spectroscopy into agreement with their muonic counterparts, without changing the Rydberg constant (31).

Third, a systematic shift of all spectroscopic muonic measurements by  $140\sigma$  (corresponding to 80 GHz in  $\mu$ p and 104 GHz in  $\mu$ d), or a missing theory term in the Lamb shift of muonic atoms that accounts for the missing  $\epsilon_{LS}$ , could be the source of the discrepancies. This theory error would correspond to  $160\sigma$  in  $\mu$ p, and  $22\sigma$  in  $\mu$ d, where the uncertainty of the TPE contribution is about 10 times larger (13). The claimed uncertainty of the pure QED (i.e., non-TPE) contributions in  $\mu$ d ( $\mu$ p) is about 440 (220) times smaller than the  $\epsilon_{LS}$  (13).

Neither a shift of  $R_\infty$  by  $7\sigma$  from the CODATA value, nor a change of the LS in H and D by  $\sim 110$  kHz, will, however, appreciably affect Eq. 1 (5). Hence, we can proceed and draw conclusions from the fact that the muonic isotope shift

$$\delta^{(2)}(\mu p, \mu d) = 3.81120(339) \text{ fm}^2 \quad (12)$$

is compatible within  $2.6\sigma$  with the “electronic” isotope shift, Eq. 1, but five times less accurate.

The absolute values of  $r_p$  and  $r_d$  from the muonic 2S-2P measurements are thus roughly consistent with the size difference from the electronic 1S-2S measurement (4, 5), Eq. 1.

The dominant source of uncertainty in Eq. 12 is the calculated TPE contribution (Eq. 8), whose effect on the uncertainty of  $r_d$  from  $\mu$ d, Eq. 9, is about six times larger than the experimental uncertainty. Hence, we are tempted to ascribe the remaining  $2.6\sigma$  discrepancy between the electronic and muonic isotope shift to the TPE contribution to the LS in  $\mu$ d.

We can thus use the muonic proton radius from  $\mu$ p (9),  $r_p(\mu p) = 0.84087(39)$  fm, and the electronic isotope shift, Eq. 1, to obtain a precise value of the deuteron charge radius in an indirect way. The resulting value

$$r_d(\mu p + \text{iso}) = 2.12771(22) \text{ fm} \quad (13)$$

was given in (9) and is indicated as “ $\mu$ p+ iso” in Figs. 2 and 3. It is the most accurate value of the deuteron RMS charge radius and is independent of the TPE contribution in  $\mu$ d.

Using this “expected” deuteron radius from Eq. 13 in the theory expression for the LS in  $\mu$ d, Eq. 7, yields an experimental value for the TPE contribution to the LS in  $\mu$ d

$$\Delta E_{LS}^{\text{TPE}}(\text{exp}) = 1.7638(68) \text{ meV} \quad (14)$$

from the measured LS in Eq. 5. It is  $2.6\sigma$  larger than the calculated value, Eq. 8, but three times more accurate, making it a benchmark for ab initio calculations of the deuteron (2, 19, 20, 22) or analysis of virtual Compton scattering data (21).

In a similar manner, we determine the experimental value of the polarizability—i.e., the inelastic part of the TPE contribution to the 2S-HFS—using our measured HFS, Eq. 6, Eq. 42 of (13), and the Zemach radius of the deuteron  $r_Z = 2.593(16)$  fm from (40). We obtain

$$\Delta E_{\text{HFS}}^{\text{pol}}(\text{exp}) = 0.2178(74) \text{ meV} \quad (15)$$

where the experimental uncertainty is by far the dominant one. This agrees with the theoretical value  $\Delta E_{\text{HFS}}^{\text{pol}}(\text{theo}) = 0.2226(49)$  meV, which has been calculated only recently (16).

Finally, we note that the reasoning that leads to Eq. 13 can of course be inverted. Using the measured muonic deuteron charge radius, Eq. 9, and the electronic isotope shift, Eq. 1, we obtain a new value for the proton radius

$$r_p(\mu d + \text{iso}) = 0.8356(20) \text{ fm} \quad (16)$$

confirming the “small” proton charge radius from muonic hydrogen (8, 9), further amplifying the “proton radius puzzle” (10, 11) (see Fig. 4).

Ultimately, only new experiments can shed more light on the proton and deuteron radius discrepancies. A lot of activity exists in elastic electron scattering (41, 42), with the hope for refined values of  $r_p$  and  $r_d$ . Muon scattering on the proton will be able to check the BSM hypothesis (43). Moreover,

several atomic physics measurements are underway to verify and improve the Rydberg constant and the proton and deuteron radius from regular (electronic) hydrogen and deuterium (44–46).

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## EXTRASOLAR PLANETS

# Direct imaging discovery of a Jovian exoplanet within a triple-star system

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Direct imaging allows for the detection and characterization of exoplanets via their thermal emission. We report the discovery via imaging of a young Jovian planet in a triple-star system and characterize its atmospheric properties through near-infrared spectroscopy. The semimajor axis of the planet is closer relative to that of its hierarchical triple-star system than for any known exoplanet within a stellar binary or triple, making HD 131399 dynamically unlike any other known system. The location of HD 131399Ab on a wide orbit in a triple system demonstrates that massive planets may be found on long and possibly unstable orbits in multistar systems. HD 131399Ab is one of the lowest mass ( $4 \pm 1$  Jupiter masses) and coldest ( $850 \pm 50$  kelvin) exoplanets to have been directly imaged.

**T**housands of planets around other stars have been discovered (1, 2), revealing a greater diversity than predicted by traditional planet formation models based on the solar system.

Extreme examples are planets within binary and multiple-star systems, which form and evolve in variable radiation and gravitational fields. Direct imaging allows for the detection and spectroscopic characterization of long-period giant planets, thus enabling constraints to be placed on planet formation models via predictions of planet population statistics and atmospheric properties (3). However, most direct imaging surveys have traditionally excluded visual binary or multiple systems whose separations are less than a few hundred astronomical units (AUs). These exclusions are based on the assumption that such planetary systems would either be disrupted or never

form, as well as the increased technical complexity of detecting a planet among the scattered light of multiple stars. As a result of this observational bias, most directly imaged exoplanets have been found around single stars.

Because multistar systems are as numerous as single stars (4), building a complete census of long-period giant planets requires investigation of both configurations. In principal, planets on wide orbits (detectable by direct imaging) might arise more frequently in multistar systems because of planet-planet or planet-star interactions (5, 6). Such interactions could even produce planets on chaotic orbits that wander between the stars (7, 8). To investigate the frequency of long-period giant planets both around single stars and in multistar systems, we are using the Very Large Telescope (VLT) and the Spectro-Polarimetric High-Contrast Exoplanet Research instrument [SPHERE (9)] to sample a population of ~100 young single and multiple A-type stars in the nearby Upper Scorpius-Centaurus-Lupus association. Here we report the discovery of the first planet detected in our ongoing survey and the widest-orbit planet within a multistar system.

## Observations and discovery of HD 131399Ab

HD 131399 (also known as HIP72940) is a triple system (10) in the  $16 \pm 1$ -million-year-old Upper

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### Laser spectroscopy of muonic deuterium

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Editor's Summary

#### The deuteron is too small, too

The radius of the proton has remained a point of debate ever since the spectroscopy of muonic hydrogen indicated a large discrepancy from the previously accepted value. Pohl *et al.* add an important clue for solving this so-called proton radius puzzle. They determined the charge radius of the deuteron, a nucleus consisting of a proton and a neutron, from the transition frequencies in muonic deuterium. Mirroring the proton radius puzzle, the radius of the deuteron was several standard deviations smaller than the value inferred from previous spectroscopic measurements of electronic deuterium. This independent discrepancy points to experimental or theoretical error or even to physics beyond the standard model.

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