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## Spatiotemporal mapping of nanotopography and thickness transitions of ultrathin foam films†

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Freshly formed soap films, soap bubbles, or foam films display iridescent colors due to thin film interference that changes as squeeze flow drives drainage and a progressive decrease in film thickness. Ultrathin (thickness <100 nm) freestanding films of soft matter containing micelles, particles, polyelectrolyte–surfactant complexes, or other supramolecular structures or liquid crystalline phases display drainage *via* stratification. A fascinating array of thickness variations and transitions, including stepwise thinning and coexistence of thick–thin flat regions, arise in micellar foam films that undergo drainage *via* stratification. In this tutorial, we describe the IDIOM (interferometry digital imaging optical microscopy) protocols that combine the conventional interferometry principle with digital filtration and image analysis to obtain nanometer accuracy for thickness determination while having high spatial and temporal resolution. We provide fully executable image analysis codes and algorithms for the analysis of nanotopography and summarize some of the unique insights obtained for stratified micellar foam films.

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### Introduction

Bubbles and films created using pure liquids like water drain and burst quickly, whereas soap bubbles and soap films have a relatively prolonged, dynamically richer, colorful existence and death.<sup>1–5</sup> Iridescent colors of a freshly prepared soap bubble or foam (freestanding) film under white light source illumination arise due to thin film interference.<sup>1</sup> The same phenomena are responsible for the structural color of many butterflies like *Papilio Palinarus*, oil slicks on rainy days, and multilayered polymer films.<sup>6,7</sup> The iridescent colors disappear for ultrathin films (thickness,  $h < 100$  nm). However, the thickness-dependent variation in interference intensity is manifested as soapy shades of gray, ranging from whitish gray to black as films get progressively thinner.<sup>1,2,5,8–10</sup> Drainage of liquid away from foam films into the surrounding Plateau borders in foams and to meniscus in the thin film balance (Scheludko cell) is driven by the gradient in capillary or Laplace pressure,  $P_c = \Gamma K$ , which depends on surface tension,  $\Gamma$  and the curvature,  $K$  of the gas–liquid interfaces.<sup>5,11</sup> Quantitative understanding and analysis of the spatial and temporal variation in thickness of ultrathin foam films are of immense practical importance for at least two reasons. Firstly, film drainage and rupture influence the stability, properties, and applications of foams which contain gas pockets separated by thin films.<sup>1,2,4,5,12–15</sup>

Secondly, ultrathin films provide experimental and theoretical systems for observing the influence of colloidal forces or the intermolecular and surface forces that contribute thickness-dependent disjoining pressure,  $\Pi(h)$  on drainage kinetics, nanotopography, and stabilization against rupture (extending foam stability) of ultrathin films.<sup>5,9,16–24</sup>

The observation of iridescent colors and black films by Hooke first, and later by Newton, prompted them to expound on the nature of light and soap films.<sup>1,2,4,5,13,14,25</sup> A galaxy of scientists have contributed to understanding interfacial tension, surfactant science, lubrication flows, and optics relevant to soap film studies.<sup>2,10,14,25–27</sup> Experiments established the existence of two distinct blacks in ultrathin foam films and postulated that the two thicknesses are set by intermolecular distances and forces by the end of the nineteenth century, even though the existence of molecules or molecular hypothesis was controversial.<sup>25,28,29</sup> In 1906, Johannott reported the existence of multiple blacks (as many as five).<sup>29</sup> A decade later, Perrin observed stepwise thinning, with similar size steps that he assumed to be characteristic of a molecular size.<sup>30,31</sup> Perrin cited stratification (also probably coined the term in this context) as additional evidence for molecular reality in 1926 in his Nobel lecture renowned for experimental studies of Brownian motion.<sup>30,31</sup> The fragile, transient nature of soap films that inspired these curiosity-driven quests into the nature of light and matter has fascinated children, painters, poets and scientists alike over the centuries.<sup>1,2,5,14,32–35</sup> Foam films or soap films have continued to serve as model systems for characterizing the influence of intermolecular and forces, interfacial adsorption, self-assembly, free-surface flows, and 2D

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turbulence.<sup>3,13,27,35–37</sup> Liquid foam films contain interfacially active amphiphilic molecules like small molecule surfactants (soaps, detergents, lipids, and many fatty acids) or amphiphilic macromolecules (proteins and certain polymers) spontaneously adsorbed to liquid–air or oil–water interfaces. The adsorbed small molecule surfactants reduce surface tension, aiding in the creation of new surfaces, and therefore act as foaming or emulsifying agents. The amphiphilic soap (or detergent) molecules self-assemble in aqueous dispersions to form supramolecular micelles above a critical micelle concentration (CMC).<sup>38</sup> For small molecule surfactants, surface tension,  $\Gamma$  attains a nearly constant value for  $c > \text{CMC}$  (critical micellar concentration).<sup>11</sup> For ionic surfactants, the two blacks, common black film (CBF,  $h < 20$  nm) and Newton black film (NBF,  $h \sim$  few nm), manifest for  $c < \text{CMC}$ ,<sup>5,10,14,16,17</sup> whereas  $c > \text{CMC}$ , foam films display step-wise thinning with the appearance of coexisting flat regions with multiple quantized thicknesses that appear as coexisting shades of gray.<sup>8–10,18–24,39–46</sup>

It is well-established now that the multiple blacks or progressively darker shades of gray for freely draining micellar foam films arise due to a supramolecular oscillatory structural force contribution to disjoining pressure,  $\Pi_{\text{os}}(h)$  that is attributed to confinement-induced layering of micelles.<sup>8,9,17–24,41–45</sup> The experimental characterization of the thickness variations and transitions is a critical step towards developing a deeper understanding of the stratification dynamics and the role played by capillary and disjoining pressure. Extensive literature describes the creation and evolution of the nanotopography of supported films undergoing dewetting under the influence of capillarity and surface forces.<sup>11,47–53</sup> However, mapping nanoscopic thickness evolution and variations in freestanding films, including stratifying micellar foam films, was a long-standing challenge.

Typical foam film drainage studies obtain an average film thickness as a function of time using the electrical (involving resistance/conductance measurement), or optical techniques, including spectroscopy and interferometry.<sup>1,5,14–17,44,45,54–61</sup> Among these, interferometry is the used most commonly as it allows non-intrusive, nanometer accuracy thickness measurement. A beam of light incident upon a thin film undergoes multiple reflections at the upper and lower interfaces. Therefore, the reflected light intensity is determined by interference between a series of reflected lights with diminishing amplitude, influenced by film thickness,  $h$  and refractive index,  $n$ . Traditional interferometry illuminates a thin film with monochromatic light from a laser or filtered light as the source and uses a photodiode to measure the reflected light intensity and the temporal evolution of a local film thickness from the chosen region of interest. The light intensity,  $I$  reflected from a spot size of 1–100  $\mu\text{m}$  is tracked over time,  $t$  using a photodetector to obtain  $I(t)$ , and it is converted into the temporal evolution of the average thickness,  $h(t)$  within the sampling spot.<sup>34,44,45,54,62</sup> However, these measurements lack the spatial resolution for studying dynamics and pattern formation in stratifying foam films.

In 2015, Zhang and Sharma developed their IDIOM (interferometry digital imaging optical microscopy) protocols by combining the white light illumination and pixel-wise

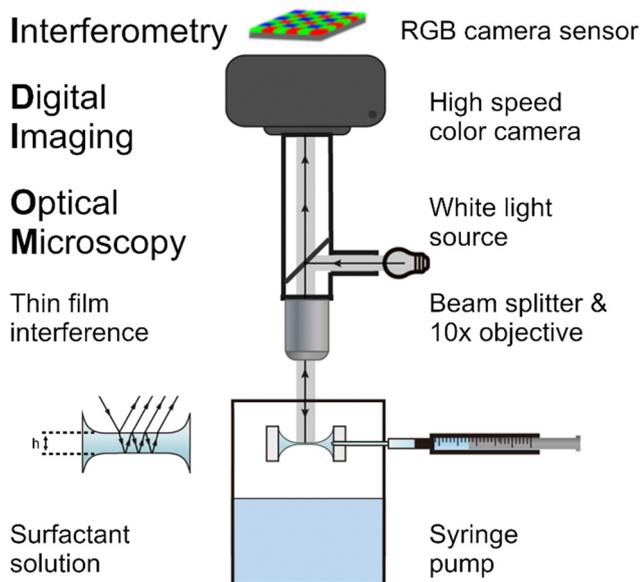
detection of reflected intensity using a digital camera.<sup>8,9</sup> The IDIOM protocols facilitate mapping of the nanoscopic thickness transitions of foam films with exquisite spatiotemporal resolution (thickness  $< 10$  nm, lateral  $< 1$   $\mu\text{m}$ , temporal  $< 1$  ms). Though the IDIOM protocols have been used for visualizing and analyzing the nanotopography of the stratifying micellar foam films extensively in studies published from this research group<sup>8,9,18–24,63–66</sup> and a countable few others,<sup>67–69</sup> the method has not been adopted by a wider community possibly due to the extra effort needed for compiling image analysis protocols and understanding the physical basis for the nanotopographical analysis.

In this tutorial, we present a comprehensive examination of the IDIOM protocols. We illustrate the approach pedagogically and supplement the text with a complete set of MATLAB scripts with examples and annotations to enable a seamless adoption by foam formulators and researchers. The tutorial discusses the challenges of picking a representative region of interest for examining step-wise thinning from plots of average thickness *vs.* time. We include a movie of a stratifying foam film that corresponds to the grayscale images and reconstructed thickness maps that show nanotopographical features, including nanoridges and mesas. The tutorial illustrates the physical principles underlying interferometry-based mapping of nanotopography and summarizes the physicochemical processes underlying the drainage of micellar foam films.

## IDIOM (Interferometry digital imaging optical microscopy) protocols

Drainage and stratification of a single horizontal micellar thin film is visualized and characterized with the thin film apparatus and imaging system shown schematically in Fig. 1. A circular thin film with nearly plane-parallel gas–liquid interfaces is formed at the center of the cell, and a syringe pump is used to control the fluid volume in the cell. The film is surrounded by a thicker meniscus, analogous to the Plateau border in real foams. The Scheludko-like cell is placed within a closed chamber containing the same surfactant solution used in experiments to minimize the effect of evaporation. The cell consists of a miniature glass cylinder (inside diameter,  $d_c = 1.6$  mm) with a small orifice ( $< 0.1$  mm) drilled on the side wall and a stainless-steel needle fixed in the orifice to connect liquid in the cell to a syringe pump (New Era NE-1000). The test solution is loaded into the cell to form a biconcave drop. A circular thin film is formed by slowly withdrawing liquid from the drop using the syringe pump. Once the desired film diameter,  $d_f$  is reached, the withdrawal is stopped to maintain a constant fluid volume throughout the film drainage process.

The capillary pressure difference between the plane-parallel thin film and the curved Plateau border drives the drainage. This capillary pressure difference,  $P_c$  can be estimated by assuming that the surfactant solution completely wets the glass cell wall, and the contact angle between the thin film and the



**Fig. 1** Schematic of the setup used for IDIOM (interferometry digital imaging optical microscopy) protocols. A single foam film is created in a cell placed in a closed container, and the film undergoing drainage is visualized using reflected light microscopy. The plane-parallel film and surrounding meniscus in this Sheludko-like cell emulate a single foam film in contact with Plateau borders. The syringe mounted on a syringe pump is used to pump in a finite volume of fluid using the side arm and then to withdraw slowly till the plane-parallel film reaches a thickness where the last interference fringes disappear. No liquid is added or withdrawn during the drainage experiment, so ensure free and spontaneous drainage from the film into the meniscus. Spatio-temporal variation in interference intensity  $I(x, y, \lambda, t)$  of the reflected light is extracted from RAW images and used for computing the effective thickness of the foam film with in-plane resolution set by microscopy.

Plateau border is small. Therefore,  $P_c$  is given by:

$$P_c \approx \frac{4\Gamma d_c}{d_c^2 - d_f^2} \quad (1)$$

where  $\Gamma$  is the surface tension of the test solution. It has been suggested that the kinetics of stratification is influenced by the size of the film.<sup>22,23,39,44,45,70</sup> As a result, we suggest maintaining the initial size of the film ( $d_f \sim 300 \mu\text{m}$ ) across experiments with different surfactant concentrations, to make meaningful comparisons. The initial capillary pressure in the experiments described in this study is around  $P_c \approx 90 \text{ Pa}$ . At a later stage of the film drainage, after the film reaches relatively small thicknesses ( $h < 100 \text{ nm}$ ), and the micellar structural disjoining pressure becomes large enough to completely balance the driving capillary pressure and bring the drainage to a halt. Further stepwise thinning can be induced by withdrawing more liquid and increasing  $d_f$ . In an alternative protocol used by Anachkov *et al.*,<sup>42</sup> the cell container is opened briefly to allow evaporation, which results in an increase in the capillary pressure and consequently in a step transition.

The drainage process of the single horizontal micellar thin films formed in the thin film apparatus is captured as RAW format images/videos (12-bit depth) by a reflected light microscope. The imaging system consists of precision microscope

lens system (Navitar Zoom 6000 with a  $10\times$  microscope objective), and a high-resolution, high-speed color camera (FASTCAM Mini UX100) with high-quality CMOS or CCD sensors (See Fig. 1). The illumination is provided by a white LED light source (Filex P360EX) with adjustable color temperature (set to 5100 K for most experiments). The protocol of IDIOM, as described above, was tested with various other cameras and illumination light sources by Zhang *et al.* in 2016.<sup>9</sup>

Following Sheludko,<sup>34</sup> for a freestanding homogeneous flat film with identical interfaces in which light adsorption can be neglected and for a nearly perpendicular incident beam of monochromatic light, a relatively accurate measure of film thickness,  $h$  can be obtained using equation 2 that relies on a normalized measure of intensity,  $\Delta = (I - I_{\min})/(I_{\max} - I_{\min})$ , that inherently addresses the influence of source intensity and background/detector errors:

$$h = \frac{\lambda}{2\pi n} \arcsin \left( m\pi \pm \sqrt{\frac{\Delta}{1 + 4R(1 - \Delta)/(1 - R)^2}} \right) \quad (2)$$

Here,  $n$  is the refractive index of the thin film,  $R = (n - 1)^2/(n + 1)^2$  is the Fresnel coefficient of the film interface,  $\lambda$  is the wavelength of the incident light,  $I_{\max}$  and  $I_{\min}$  are maxima and minima intensities of the last order of interference. The derivation is shown in the Appendix. For thicker films ( $h \sim 0.1\text{--}1 \mu\text{m}$ ), the film thickness can be determined once the interference order,  $m$ , is known. For thinner films ( $h < 100 \text{ nm}$ ), the entire visible wavelength range corresponds to  $m = 0$ , and colorless (gray or black) film under white light illumination shows the influence of local thickness variation. As the IDIOM protocols use the photodetector array of a digital camera, pixel-wise characterization of intensity is possible. The resulting thickness maps have an in-plane spatial resolution comparable to optical microscopy that is set by the imaging setup (lenses). A subnanometer thickness resolution is possible for 12-bit sensor camera with the use of unprocessed images in the RAW format. The experiments described here are conducted with horizontal films, for the presence of any tilt is accompanied by the rising of thinning regions, sinking of thicker regions, and additional flows attributed to marginal regeneration.<sup>2,5,71,72</sup> We used IDIOM protocols to characterize spinodal stratification in vertical foam films,<sup>19</sup> and described how regions are advected in response of stresses contributed by of buoyancy, gravity, and capillarity.

## Example of drainage via stratification in micellar foam films

Fig. 2 shows a montage of a stratifying SDS micellar thin film with  $c_{\text{SDS}} = 90 \text{ mM}$  captured by IDIOM protocols. The stratifying thin film shows five coexisting shades of gray, which represent five coexisting thick–thin regions (marked as  $h_0$  to  $h_4$ ). Stratification occurs through nucleation and expansion of thinner, darker circular domains in thicker, brighter surrounding thin film. Rich and complex patterns can be observed, including

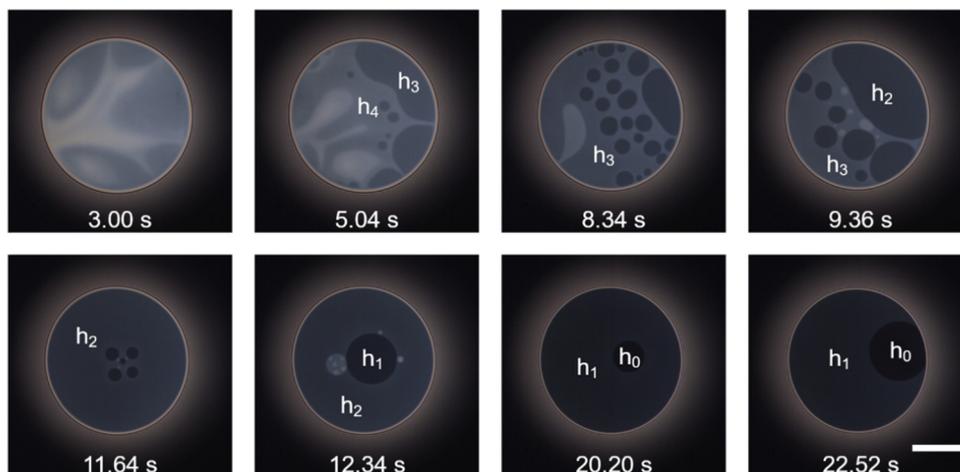


Fig. 2 Montage of a stratifying SDS micellar thin film with  $c_{\text{SDS}} = 90$  mM. The image sequence was captured using the IDIOM setup. Five thickness transitions are observed; each gray shade represents a distinct thickness ( $h_0$  to  $h_4$ ). The scale bar represents 100  $\mu\text{m}$ .

faint halos and white spots formed around the expanding darker domains.

The characterization and analysis of the thickness variations and transitions in stratifying foam films with a high spatio-temporal resolution by IDIOM protocols follow the following algorithm. Drainage of a thin freestanding is examined using the set-up shown schematically in Fig. 1. Color images captured using a high-quality CMOS or CCD sensor of a high-speed

digital camera in the RAW format provide pixel-wise intensity maps for three wavelengths,  $I(x, y, t, \lambda)$ . Three images corresponding to red, green, or blue wavelengths are generated using digital filtering. After that, the intensity of each pixel at each instant or for each snapshot is used to compute thickness using eqn (2). Thus, the images can be converted into thickness maps  $h(x, y, t)$  from three color channels, and in the absence of wavelength-dependent absorption, all three provide similar

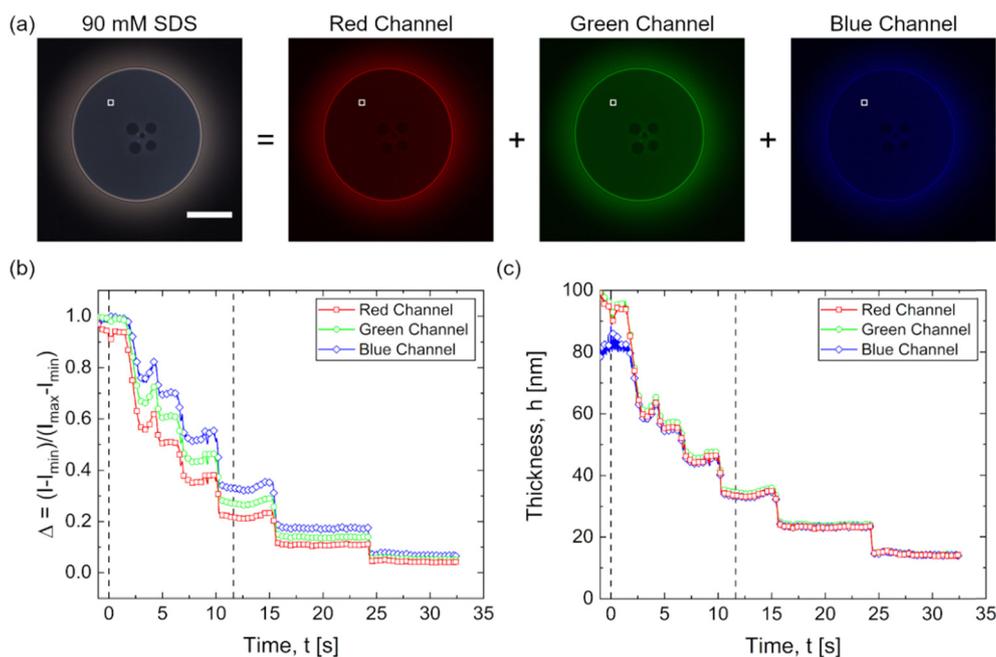


Fig. 3 Average thickness vs. time plot of a fixed sample square region on a stratifying SDS micellar thin film with  $c_{\text{SDS}} = 90$  mM. (a) Snapshot of the thin film at 11.64 s. The image is split into three channels (red, green, and blue with  $\lambda = 600, 546, 470$  nm). The onset time,  $t = 0$  s, is defined as the instant when the zeroth order interference is reached for the blue light (with the shortest wavelength). The scale bar represents 100  $\mu\text{m}$ . (b) The normalized intensity vs. time plot of the sample region marked by the small white box with a 25-pixel side length shown in Fig. 3(a). The intensities extracted from the three-color channels are presented with symbols of the corresponding colors. The first dashed line labels the instant,  $t = 0$  s, and the second dashed line labels the instant,  $t = 11.64$  s. (c) Average thickness vs. time plot of the selected region displays stepwise thinning. The thicknesses extracted from the intensity values of three-color channels using eqn (2) are presented with symbols of the corresponding colors.

measurements. These three values are then averaged to reduce noise. Although a color camera is used in the current setup, pixel-wise intensity obtained from a monochromatic digital camera can be used to determine thickness variation, implying that a color camera is not necessary for carrying out thickness mapping using the IDIOM protocols.<sup>9</sup>

Fig. 3(a) shows a RAW format color image of the stratifying thin film at 11.64 s. The image is stored as a three-dimensional matrix in which each image pixel contains three values associated with the light intensities of red (wavelength,  $\lambda = 600$  nm), green ( $\lambda = 546$  nm), and blue ( $\lambda = 470$  nm) lights. The light intensity recorded in each color channel is represented as a value in the range of 0–4095 (12-bit depth for the specific camera used). The specially developed codes based on eqn (2) with  $m = 0$  (included as supplementary files online, ESI†), the light intensity of each pixel can be converted into thickness for each color channel in MATLAB R2016a. The thickness determined from eqn (2) with  $m = 0$  is a measure of “equivalent film thickness”, assuming the bulk solvent refractive index for the entire thin film, even though the two interfaces are surfactant enriched. An alternative three-layer model uses different refractive indices for the adsorbed surfactant layers and the aqueous solution in between.<sup>44,57</sup> However, if appropriate values for thickness and refractive index of the adsorbed layer are obtained, the correction introduced by the model turns out to be negligible ( $< 1$  nm) for SDS films.<sup>44</sup> For the dilute surfactant solutions used in this study, water refractive index is used,  $n = 1.33$ . Eqn (2) with  $m = 0$  also neglects visible light absorption, includes multiple reflections within the film, assumes a near normal incidence, and considers only zeroth order of interference, which are valid assumptions for films with thickness  $h < \lambda/2\pi n$  ( $h < 85$  nm for the shortest blue wavelength).

The value of  $I_{\max}$  is determined by tracking the intensity over time and finding its last maxima, which corresponds to a bright white color in the images and a film thickness of  $\lambda/4n$ , which tends to be 88 nm, 102.4 nm, and 112.5 nm for the blue, green and red channel, respectively. The minimum intensity in zeroth order interference,  $I_{\min}$ , reaches zero film thickness. After each experiment, the thin film apparatus is removed from the field of view and the background intensity is recorded as  $I_{\min}$ . Care is taken to avoid stray reflections from the apparatus and the container. The gas–liquid interface of the surfactant solution in the closed container is always kept out of focus to avoid reflection (distance from the thin film  $> 10$  cm, 10 times focal length).

To mimic the thickness evaluation by conventional interferometry methods, the film thickness evolution over time and step-sizes are calculated by averaging the normalized intensity over a square sample region with a side length of 25 pixels. This procedure is typically repeated several times at different locations within the thin film area to ensure the values obtained are not affected by spatial inhomogeneity in film thickness (and light intensity) or any tilt in horizontal films. Fig. 3(b) shows the plot of the scaled intensity ratio against time for each of the three channels or wavelengths. The scaled intensity decreases in a stepwise fashion for all three wavelengths. The plot echoes or emulates the intensity–time plots shown in some studies in

lieu of actual thickness–time plots.<sup>70,73</sup> Fig. 3(c) shows the thickness–time plot or film thickness evolution over time computed using eqn (2) for each wavelength and each snapshot. After the onset time,  $t = 0$  s, thickness measurement following eqn (2) with  $m = 0$  becomes valid, and the thicknesses measured from three color channels (plotted in their respective colors) are almost identical. The differences between them are typically  $< 1$  nm. Fig. 3(c) shows that the film thins in a stepwise fashion, with multiple thickness steps corresponding to different shades of gray observed in the snapshots (included in Fig. 2). Fig. 3(a) shows one snapshot at  $t = 11.64$  s, where the two shades co-exist and correspond to one of the thickness steps. The transition from thicker to thinner step in the average thickness *vs.* time plot (Fig. 3(c)) occurs when the thinner part of the film grows into and occupies the sample region. The step heights between thickness transitions,  $\Delta h = h_n - h_{n-1}$ , remain almost constant throughout the stratification.

Thus, Fig. 3(c) shows the time evolution of thickness during drainage, obtained by analyzing the average reflected light intensity of the region of interest at a single, fixed location in the lab frame. The montages included in Fig. 2, and the corresponding video (supplementary Video online, ESI†) illustrate that the spontaneous formation, growth, coalescence, and motion of darker (thinner) domains or brighter (thicker) white spots (we call mesas<sup>8,22,23</sup>) influences the instantaneous value of thickness measured at any location. Though the gross thickness–time plot shows stepwise thinning with consistent step size, the duration for which a particular step thickness is registered in plots like Fig. 3(c) varies based on the size and location of the chosen region of interest. Furthermore, the thickness–time plots provide no information about the considerable variation in the number, shape, and size of domains and mesas formed at any instant as film thickness decreases in a stepwise manner. Most significantly, characterization of the formation and evolution of the complex thick–thin patterns is necessary for developing a better understanding of the physicochemical processes that drive drainage by stratification.

## Nanotopographical mapping of stratified micellar foam films

Fig. 4 shows the nanotopography of the stratifying foam films obtained from IDIOM protocols such that the thickness maps correspond to the grey scale images included in Fig. 2. The thickness maps facilitate a high-resolution visualization of the nanotopographical features formed as micellar foam film undergoes drainage *via* stratification. The mapping enables a detailed investigation of the complex patterns formed by the coexisting thick–thin regions and shows non-flat structures, including ridges formed between relatively flat regions. Even though a faint halo can be visualized around an expanding domain in grey-scale images, thickness maps enable quantitative analysis of the shape evolution of nanoscopic ridges formed at the moving front between the expanding domain and thicker surroundings. As the thickness difference between

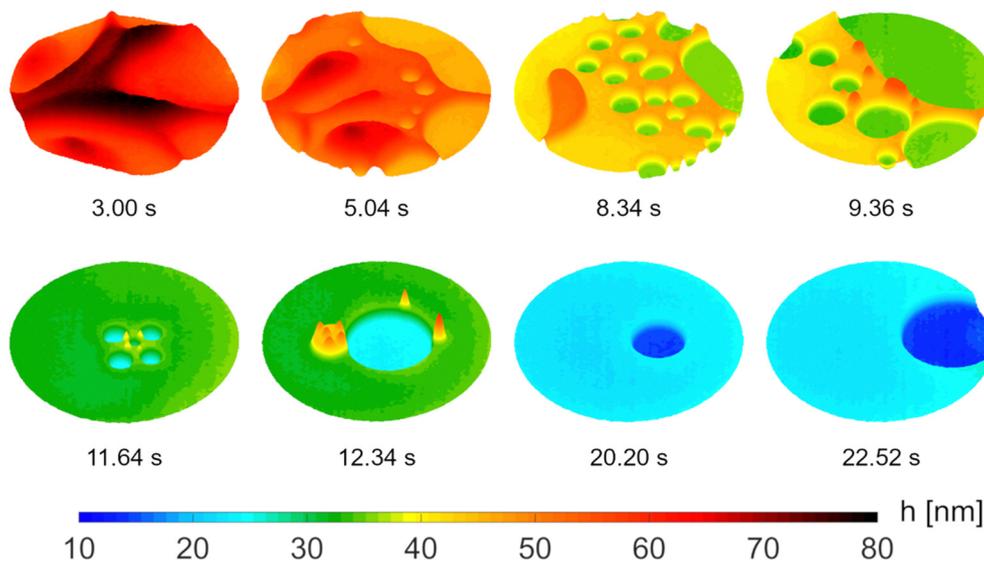


Fig. 4 Thickness maps obtained using IDIOM protocols. The maps correspond to the snapshot of freely draining thin film shown in Fig. 2. The exquisite spatiotemporal resolution (thickness < 10 nm, lateral < 1  $\mu$ m, temporal < 1 ms) of these thickness maps enables visualization of five-layer coexisting thick–thin flat regions and the nonflat nanoscopic structures formed between these regions.

the non-flat nanoridge and the relatively flat region of the surrounding is small (only a few nm), and the expansion of domains changes the location of ridges in a film, attempting to characterize such variations with conventional interferometry is futile. In the early 1990s, tracking the growth of individual isolated thinner, darker domains revealed a growth law of  $R \propto t^{1/2}$  that was attributed to the diffusion of micelles and vacancies in the “ordered colloidal crystal” mechanism by Nikolov, Wasan, and collaborators.<sup>39–41,70,74</sup> In contrast, a hydrodynamic mechanism using a thin film equation was proposed by Bergeron and Radke,<sup>45</sup> and also utilized by Langevin and coworkers,<sup>75</sup> postulating that the rapid removal of fluid from the domain region leads to the formation of nanoscopic ridge around growing domains. However, in the absence of thickness mapping, the existence of the ridge and the mechanism driving stratification remained unresolved till we developed the IDIOM protocols.<sup>8,9,19,22</sup>

The detailed shape, thickness profile, and evolution of the nanoridge were characterized experimentally for the first time by IDIOM protocols in 2018 by Zhang and Sharma.<sup>22</sup> The nanoridge shape radially outwards from a growing domain includes an inner region adjacent to the thinner domain, the peak, and an outer region that merges with the thicker surrounding film. The experiments show that the inner nanoridge region adjacent to the thinner domain displays a quasistatic shape, stationary in the laboratory frame, that travels with the domain expansion rate. The nanoridge peak grows vertically over time, whereas the outer region displays a self-similar shape captured by a similarity variable containing a ratio of radial distance to the square root of time. We further showed that the nanotopography evolution can be described using the thin film equation amended with supra-molecular oscillatory structural disjoining pressure.<sup>8,9,19,22</sup>

The nanoridge can undergo topological instability, forming mesas (white spots) around the domain, as visualized in the second row of Fig. 4. As the thickness scale is in nanometers

while the in-plane length scale is in micrometers, the brighter, white spots have a pancake-like shape so that they are regarded as mesas (see thickness maps at 9.36 s and 11.64 s in Fig. 4). Moreover, the white spots with multiple layers can sometimes form (see thickness map at 12.34 s in Fig. 4), often due to mesa coalescence. Zhang and Sharma<sup>23</sup> tracked the thickness evolution around expanding domains during the instability that led to the formation of mesas and argued that mesas form and grow due to a disjoining-pressure-driven instability. Thickness visualization shows that the nanoridge region between mesas retains its shape as mesas form and grow, implying that the observations were inconsistent with the mechanism of capillarity-driven Rayleigh-type instability advanced in the literature.<sup>40,45</sup> Zhang and Sharma found that even though domain expansion kinetics display an initial growth law of  $R \propto t^{1/2}$ , the growth law changes to  $R \propto t$  after mesas appear and domains coalesce with the Plateau border. So mechanistically, a combination of detailed analysis of the thin film equation and thickness maps obtained using IDIOM show that initially apparent diffusive growth occurs due to restriction on the outward mass flux, and growth speeds up when mesas and Plateau borders act as reservoirs for material removed from growing domain region.

The examples in this manuscript (and our previous studies) represent fascinating early progress in unraveling the role of disjoining pressure in driving flows and sculpting the nanotopography of ultrathin film. In addition to characterizing the shape evolution of nanoridges and evaluating nanoridge-mesa instability, we have deployed IDIOM protocols to visualize and characterize spinodal stratification (the first observation in freestanding films),<sup>19</sup> the change in the appearance of isolated mesas in foams formed by salt-added micellar SDS solutions<sup>18,65</sup> as well as in foams formed with bile salts.<sup>64</sup> We infer that ultrathin films provide an exquisite, frugal visual

system for observing thermodynamics and hydrodynamics of confined supramolecular structures, their influence on colloidal forces or  $\Pi(h)$ , and macroscopic rheology and stability.<sup>9,17–21,64,65,76</sup> The stratification studies with IDIOM need to be supplemented by careful studies of adsorption kinetics and interfacial rheology that also influence dynamics and kinematics of foam formation, drainage, and rupture.<sup>3,5,37,58,77,78</sup> We anticipate the completely executable list of codes included with this tutorial (included in supplementary files online, ESI† and deposited to the GitHub repository<sup>79</sup>) will provide the community with the toolbox needed for exploring detailed questions about the influence of the choice of surfactant and additives on nanotopography and drainage of thin films of soft matter.

## Conclusion & outlook

The tutorial details the experimental setup and image analysis codes that enable high-resolution nanoscopic thickness mapping of thickness variations and transitions in freestanding films by using the IDIOM (interferometry digital imaging optical microscopy) protocols. We summarize how we utilized the IDIOM protocols to develop a better understanding of flows and fluxes that drive the drainage *via* stratification in micellar foam films made from aqueous SDS solutions. Several characteristic features of stratification are analyzed in this tutorial. The thickness evolution plots show stepwise thinning with discrete jumps in thickness. The coexisting thick–thin regions observed in reflected light as regions with distinct grey scale intensity are shown to have distinct nanoscopic thicknesses. Furthermore, the thickness maps show the existence of topological transitions that create non-flat structures like ridges and mesas. The noninvasive imaging and characterization of ridges, mesas, and terraces in freely standing thin films continue to revolutionize the study of nanoscale rheology and of surface and intermolecular forces, especially the understanding of non-DLVO, including supramolecular oscillatory surface forces that underlie stratification. We hope that the widespread use of IDIOM protocols will lead to a better understanding of interactions, flows, and self-assembly in biology, chemical physics, foams, emulsions, and colloidal science.

## Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

## Appendix

### Thin film interference

Consider a beam of monochromatic light of wavelength,  $\lambda$  incident onto a flat thin film (or plane parallel plate) of thickness,  $h$  and refractive index,  $n'$ . Consider the surrounding and thin film media to be transparent and homogeneous, with the refractive index of the surrounding media as  $n$ . Suppose that a plane wave of this monochromatic, linearly polarized light is incident on the film interface at an angle,  $\theta$  and reflection and refraction occur, following the standard laws of

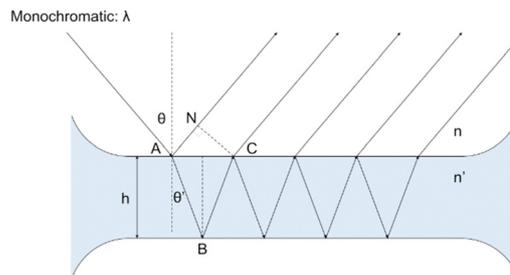


Fig. 5 Schematic of thin film interference. Here the amplitude and intensity of the reflected light are determined by interference that occurs between multiple beams reflected at the two liquid–air interfaces. Refractive index, angle of incidence, and film thickness influence the total path or phase difference between wave that interfere.

reflection and refraction (or Snell's law). For the light traveling from the surrounding to the thin film, the reflection and transmission coefficients are denoted as  $r$  and  $t$ , while for the light traveling from the thin film to the surrounding, the corresponding coefficients are denoted as  $r'$  and  $t'$ . The reflection coefficient (the amplitude ratio of reflected and incident light) and transmission coefficient (the amplitude ratio of refracted and incident light) quantify the change of light amplitude. The reflection and transmission coefficients can be calculated from Fresnel formulae, leading to  $r = -r'$  and  $r^2 + tt' = 1$ . With the definition of the reflectivity,  $R = r^2 = r'^2$  and the transmissivity,  $T = tt'$ ,  $R + T = 1$ . When a beam of light is incident on a thin film, multiple reflections and refraction can occur on both upper and lower interfaces (see Fig. 5), and multiple-beam interference happens between a series of reflected lights with diminished amplitude ( $p = 1, 2, \dots$ ).

The phase difference between  $p$ -th and  $(p + 1)$ -th reflected light is:

$$\delta = \frac{2\pi n'}{\lambda}(|AB| + |BC|) - \frac{2\pi n}{\lambda}|AN| \quad (3)$$

Using the geometric relations shown in Fig. 5, this phase difference correlates with the film thickness:

$$\delta = \frac{4\pi}{\lambda}n'h \cos \theta' \quad (4)$$

In the equation,  $\theta'$  represents the angle of refraction, and the schematic as well as eqn (4) illustrate that phase difference changes with angle of incidence. Assuming negligible light adsorption within the thin film, the complex amplitude ratio of reflected light and incident light is shown to be  $r$  for  $p = 1$  and  $tt'r^{(2p-3)}e^{i(p-1)\delta}$  for  $p > 1$ . The complex amplitude ratio obtained from the superposition of the first  $q$  reflected waves can be written as:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{A_r(q)}{A_i} &= r + tt'r'e^{i\delta} \left[ 1 + r'^2e^{i\delta} + \dots + r'^{2(q-2)}e^{i(q-2)\delta} \right] \\ &= r + \left[ \frac{1 - r'^{2(q-1)}e^{i(q-1)\delta}}{1 - r'^2e^{i\delta}} \right] tt'r'e^{i\delta} \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

For an extended thin film, the number of reflected waves is large and in this limit of  $q$  going to infinity, the amplitude ratio

becomes:

$$\frac{A_r}{A_i} = \frac{A_r(\infty)}{A_i} = -\frac{r'[1 - (r'^2 + tt')e^{i\delta}]}{1 - r'^2 e^{i\delta}} = \frac{\sqrt{R}(1 - e^{i\delta})}{1 - R e^{i\delta}} \quad (6)$$

Thus, the intensity of the reflected light,  $I = A_r A_r^*$  follows the Airy's formula:

$$\frac{I}{I_0} = \frac{4R \sin^2 \frac{\delta}{2}}{(1 - R)^2 + 4R \sin^2 \frac{\delta}{2}} \quad (7)$$

In this equation,  $I_0$  represents the light intensity of the incident light. The reflected light intensity  $I$  can be correlated with the film thickness,  $h$  after combining with the eqn (4). Since the phase difference also depends on the angle of incidence, interference intensity changes with change in viewing angle, leading to iridescence.

In 1967, Sheludko<sup>34</sup> summarized an alternative formula for carrying out foam film thickness analysis without the need for characterizing the absolute value of incident light intensity,  $I_0$ . Instead of using  $I/I_0$ , the alternative formula relates the phase difference,  $\delta$  to the normalized intensity  $\Delta = \frac{I - I_{\min}}{I_{\max} - I_{\min}}$ . Here,  $I_{\min}$  represents the background intensity (including noise) with a relatively small value so that practically  $\Delta \approx I/I_{\max}$ . The maximum intensity,  $I_{\max} = \frac{4R}{(1 - R)^2 + 4R}$  is reached for  $\sin \frac{\delta}{2} = 1$ . Thus, the normalized intensity can be written as:

$$\Delta = \frac{[(1 - R)^2 + 4R] \sin^2 \frac{\delta}{2}}{(1 - R)^2 + 4R \sin^2 \frac{\delta}{2}} \quad (8)$$

By defining  $F = \frac{4R}{(1 - R)^2}$ , the phase difference is:

$$\delta = 2 \arcsin \left( m\pi \pm \sqrt{\frac{\Delta}{1 + F(1 - \Delta)}} \right) \quad (9)$$

By assuming that the light is normally incident to the thin film ( $\theta' = 0$ ),  $\delta = \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} n' h$  and  $R = \frac{(n' - 1)^2}{(n' + 1)^2}$ . Therefore, the film thickness,  $h$  can be computed from the normalized interference intensity as:

$$h = \frac{\lambda}{2\pi n'} \arcsin \left( m\pi \pm \sqrt{\frac{\Delta}{1 + F(1 - \Delta)}} \right) \quad (10)$$

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- 79 The protocols can be accessed at <https://github.com/xcery/IDIOM-Protocols>.