

Article

The Mitigation of CO Present in the Water–Gas Shift Reformate Gas over IR-TiO₂ and IR-ZrO₂ Catalysts

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Abstract: CO hydrogenation and oxidation were conducted over Ir supported on TiO₂ and ZrO₂ catalysts using a feed mimicking the water–gas shift reformat stream. The influence of the support interaction with Ir and the catalysts' redox and CO chemisorption properties on activity and selectivity were evaluated. Both catalysts oxidised CO to CO₂ in the absence of H₂, and a conversion of 70% was obtained at 200 °C. For the CO oxidation in the presence of H₂ over these catalysts, the oxidation of H₂ was favoured over CO due to H₂ spillover occurring at the active metal and support interface, resulting in the formation of interstitials catalysed by Ir. However, both catalysts showed promising activity for CO hydrogenation. Ir-ZrO₂ was more active, giving 99.9% CO conversions from 350 to 370 °C, with high selectivity towards CH₄ using minimal H₂ from the feed. Furthermore, results for the Ir-ZrO₂ catalyst showed that the superior activity compared to the Ir-TiO₂ catalyst was mainly due to the reducibility of the support and its interaction with the active metal. Controlling the isoelectric point during the synthesis allowed for a stronger interaction between Ir and the ZrO₂ support, which resulted in higher catalytic activity due to better metal dispersions, and higher CO chemisorption capacities than obtained for the Ir-TiO₂ catalyst.

Keywords: iridium; preferential oxidation; hydrogenation; spillover; isoelectric point



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1. Introduction

In the transition to the hydrogen economy from current power sources, proton exchange membrane fuel cells (PEMFC) are considered good candidates for portable power generation [1,2]. During onboard reforming of hydrogen for these fuel cells, trace amounts of CO are still present in the reformat feed following the water–gas shift (WGS) reaction. Preferential oxidation (PROX) and methanation (MET) of CO are viable processes employed to reduce the CO concentration to acceptable levels, feeding onboard PEMFCs with pure hydrogen, and thus avoiding unwanted poisoning by CO of the Pt anode [3–8].

These reactions have been widely studied using Au, Pt, Ru, Rh, Pd, Ir, Ni, Cu, and Co supported on non-reducible oxides [5,9–16]. Among these catalytic formulations, supported Ir catalysts have not been widely explored for the PROX reaction [13,17,18]. Nguyen et al. [18] showed that Ir supported on Al₂O₃ was less active than its ceria-supported counterparts (Pt, Pd and Ir) for the PROX reaction. Furthermore, the stability of the ceria supported Ir, compared to Rh and Ru, was much higher above 200 °C, since Rh and Ru, although encouraging CO dissociation, followed the methanation pathway.

Huang et al. [17] reported that Ir-CeO₂ catalysts, prepared by the deposition–precipitation method with no Cl[−] residue, gave the highest activity for the preferential oxidation reaction compared to the other prepared materials on metal oxides (Al₂O₃ and TiO₂). Additionally, reductive pre-treatment of the catalyst was necessary for attaining high activity on a sample containing 1.60 wt.% Ir. The catalyst gave the highest oxidation activity of 60%, which decreased with the temperature above 120 °C.

Ir supported on ZrO_2 has not been reported for these oxidation reactions. To the best of our knowledge, no data has been reported for Ir supported on TiO_2 and ZrO_2 for the CO hydrogenation reaction. Additionally, the effect of controlling the isoelectric point of the two supports during the synthesis of these catalysts has not been mentioned. This motivated the present study in which TiO_2 and ZrO_2 supported Ir (1 wt.%) was tested for both the oxidation and hydrogenation of CO in a feed mimicking the water–gas shift reformat. In addition to this, we emphasise the strong metal–support interaction effects on both the supports during these reactions. For catalyst preparation, the deposition–precipitation method was used. Recently, Doustkhah et al. [19] showed that using a Cl^- containing medium in the catalyst preparation could generate oxygen vacancies. The effects shown by controlling the isoelectric points during catalyst synthesis were investigated.

2. Results and Discussion

2.1. Catalyst Characterisation

2.1.1. Physisorption and Elemental Analysis of the Materials

Table 1 shows the ICP and physisorption analysis results of bare supports and Ir- TiO_2 and Ir- ZrO_2 catalysts. The Ir wt.% loadings were the same for both catalysts and close to the nominal loading of 1%. The surface areas and pore volumes of the catalysts show a decrease compared to the supports. The decrease in pore volume could be evidence of the metal being on the support surfaces, and in the pores, to a degree. This effect is larger in the TiO_2 supported catalyst. Figure 1 shows the N_2 adsorption/desorption isotherms for the supports and catalysts studied. These isotherms correspond to type IV with H1 hysteresis, indicative of cylindrical bottle pores characteristic of mesoporous materials [20–23]. No significant changes can be observed regarding the isotherm shape following the addition of Ir, which confirms that the metal is located mainly on the surface of the supports and does not disrupt the pore structures. The pore size distributions in Figure 2 show no evident peaks corresponding to micropores or macropores for these materials, indicating that all materials have uniform mesoporosity. Slight shifts in the pore volumes are indicative of the presence of the metal on the supports.

Table 1. BET and ICP data of the supported Ir catalysts.

Catalyst	Surface Area (m^2/g)	Pore Volume (cm^3/g)	Ir wt. (%) ^a
TiO_2	151	0.35	-
ZrO_2	57	0.25	-
Ir- TiO_2	95	0.23	1.1
Ir- ZrO_2	50	0.23	1.1

^a ICP analysis.

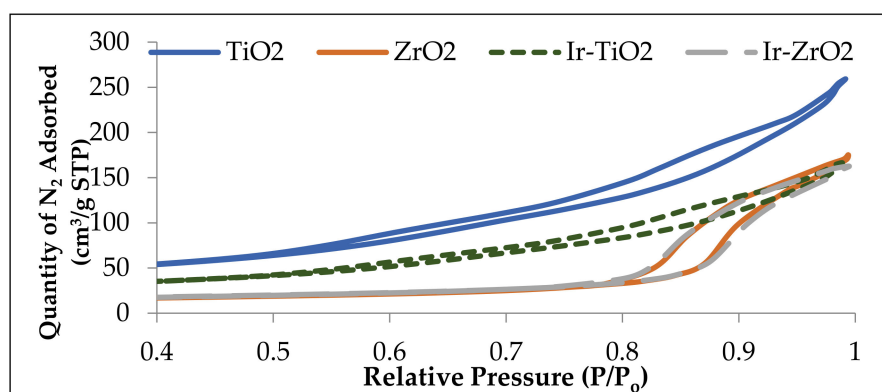


Figure 1. N_2 adsorption/desorption profiles of the materials.

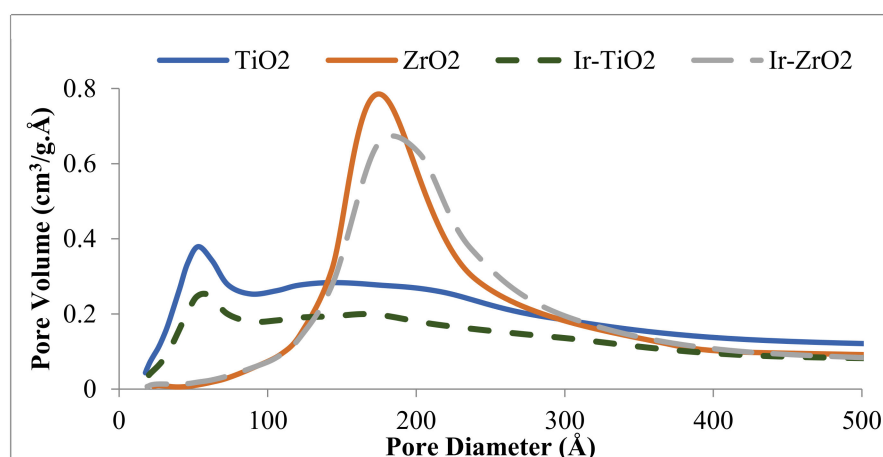


Figure 2. Pore size distributions of the materials.

2.1.2. Powder X-ray Diffraction

The X-ray diffractograms of the TiO₂ and ZrO₂ supported Ir catalysts (ESM, Figure S1) show no phases for Ir at these low weight loadings. This is generally the case for well-dispersed active phases, which XRD does not detect. It may be possible that Ir nanoparticles crystallised uniformly and occupied the pores of the support. Peaks characteristic of the supports, anatase (ICDD File No: 01-089-4921), and the monoclinic and tetragonal phases of ZrO₂ (ICDD File Nos: 01-074-1200 and 01-080-255), respectively, are seen.

2.1.3. X-ray Photon Spectroscopy

Peaks representative for the iridium oxide phases that XRD did not detect were confirmed using XPS. Figure 3 shows the deconvoluted Ir4f_{7/2} XPS scan for the supported oxide catalysts. No peaks were observed at binding energies of ~60 eV corresponding to Ir⁰. Peaks observed at binding energies of ~62 eV and ~64.7 eV are attributed to the IrO₂ phase. The binding energies also coincide with Ir 4f_{7/2}, which suggests that Ir is present in the IrO₂ phase [24,25]. Table 2 gives the binding energies observed for the Zr 3d_{5/2}, Ti 2p_{3/2}, Ir 4f_{7/2}, and O 1s, of the supported Ir catalysts. The binding energies of Zr 3d_{5/2} at 184–188 eV, and Ti 2p_{3/2} at 458–464 eV, are the expected values for the oxide supports [8,25,26] (ESM, Figure S2). The O 1s spectra (ESM, Figure S2) of the supported Ir catalysts, and the binding energies obtained, correspond to two types of oxygen species, assigned to M–O–M (M = Ti or Zr) and Ir–O species on the support [21,25]. The Ir loadings obtained are also in agreement with the ICP values.

Table 2. XPS binding energies of the Ir-TiO₂ and Ir-ZrO₂ catalysts.

Catalyst	Binding Energy (eV)				Ir wt. %
	Ir (4f _{7/2})	O (1s)	Ti (2p _{3/2})	Zr (3d _{5/2})	
Ir-TiO ₂	62.3	529.3	458.8	-	0.9
	64.6		464.1	-	
Ir-ZrO ₂	62.3	534.3	-	184.3	1.0
	64.8		-	188.1	

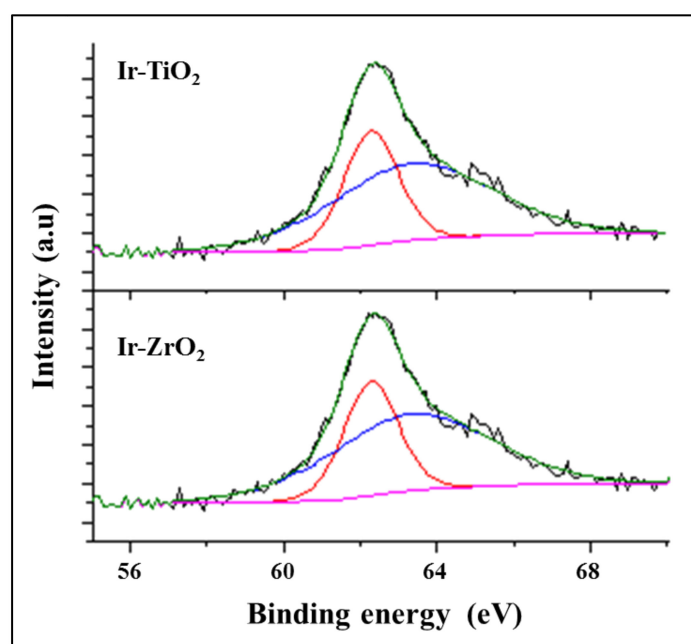


Figure 3. XPS spectra of the Ir $4f_{7/2}$ transition of Ir-TiO₂ and Ir-ZrO₂.

2.1.4. Temperature Programmed Studies

Temperature programmed reduction (H₂-TPR) profiles of the Ir-TiO₂ and Ir-ZrO₂ catalysts are shown in Figure 4. TPR of the bare supports did not show any peaks, which indicates that the peaks for the Ir-TiO₂ and Ir-ZrO₂ catalysts' H₂-TPR profiles are due to the presence of Ir in the catalyst. The catalysts have their main reduction peak at 113 °C (Ir-TiO₂) and 117 °C (Ir-ZrO₂), respectively. These peaks are attributed to the reduction of IrO₂ to metallic Ir. The reduction peak at 240 °C (Ir-TiO₂) could be due to the reduction of IrO_x species with weak and medium interactions with the support [26]. The Ir-ZrO₂ catalyst has a shoulder peak at 167 °C with a broad reduction zone, which could reduce Ir oxide species with different interactions with ZrO₂ [27]. Reduction peaks observed for both of the catalysts above 300 °C could be attributed to the surface oxygen of the supports, or reduction by H₂ spillover [22,23,28–32]. Yoshida et al. [24] reported the formation of partially reduced TiO₂ by H₂ in Ir-TiO₂ catalysts, and a well-known phenomenon referred to as the strong metal–support interaction.

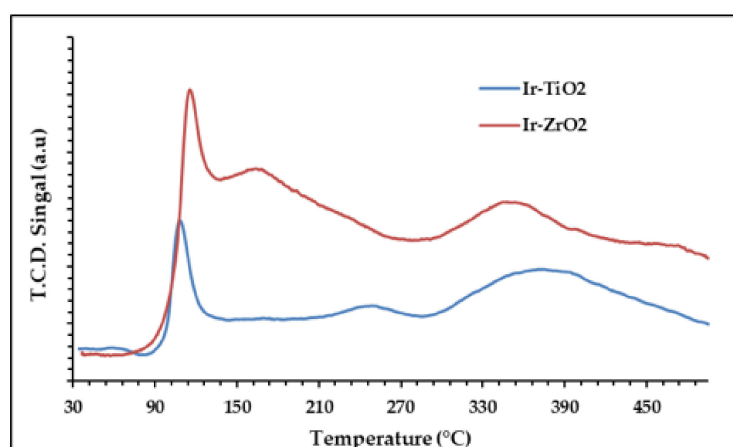


Figure 4. Temperature programmed reduction (H₂-TPR) profiles of the Ir-TiO₂ and Ir-ZrO₂ catalysts.

Similarly to the observed profiles in the literature [29,30,33–35], under reducing environments, reducible supported PGM metals with strong metal–support interactions tend

to become partially decorated by support interstitials that migrate towards and/or over the active metal at the metal–support interface. These migrations are not evident on bare supports but rather are catalysed by the active metal (Ir) as $\text{MO}_{(2-x)}$ species ($\text{M} = \text{Ti}$ or Zr), as explained in various works [11,36]. This could be due to the initial reduction of metal species that strongly interact with the surface of the support. The use of acidic precursors (Cl^-) in the synthesis could also result in strong metal–support interactions between the metal and the surface of the support [37]. The TPR profiles of the Ir-TiO₂ and Ir-ZrO₂ materials show that Ir might be present in two locations, i.e., (i) on the surface of the support, and (ii), partially or completely entrenched within the support. Due to the presence of Ir at different locations on and within the support, Ir particles are reduced at different reduction temperatures.

Figure 5 shows the TPO profiles of the reduced catalyst samples. As with the Pt catalysts that we reported previously [11,36], the oxidation of these materials occurs readily at low temperatures even before the TCD records the signal. Also, according to the literature, highly dispersed Ir samples were found to be easily oxidised at low temperatures, from Ir⁰ to IrO₂ [38]. O₂ consumption was still visible at higher temperatures, which could be evidence for the oxidation of the supports in close proximity to the metal that forms interstitial species.

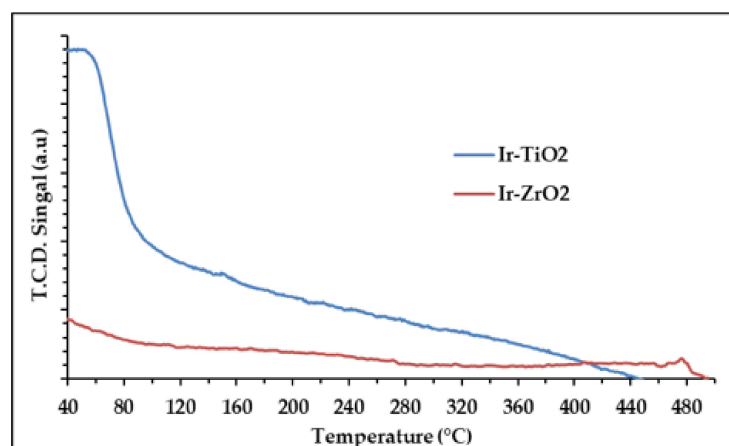


Figure 5. Temperature programmed oxidation (O₂-TPO) profiles of the Ir-TiO₂ and Ir-ZrO₂ catalysts.

2.1.5. FTIR-CO

An FTIR-CO analysis of the catalysts was used to determine the interaction of the metals with CO as the probe molecule. Figure S3 (ESM) shows the spectra obtained with increasing temperatures. Figure 6 shows the FTIR-CO analyses of the Ir-TiO₂ and Ir-ZrO₂ catalysts at a temperature of 200 °C. Both spectra show broad peaks for the supported catalysts at wavenumbers ~2050 cm⁻¹ (Ir-ZrO₂) and ~2060 cm⁻¹ (Ir-TiO₂), and a smaller shoulder band at ~1950 cm⁻¹. These bands indicate adsorption of CO over different metallic species of Ir present on the materials. It is reported that linear adsorption of CO to Ir sites (Ir⁰-CO) can give a broad single band between 2000 and 2100 cm⁻¹ [27,39]. Furthermore, bands in the region of 2080 and 2010 cm⁻¹ (seen as shoulders on the main peak) could be assigned for concurrent adsorption of two CO molecules on Ir metallic sites [39]. The shoulder peak observed at ~1950 cm⁻¹ could be due to bridged CO molecules adsorbed on supported Ir⁰ sites [40].

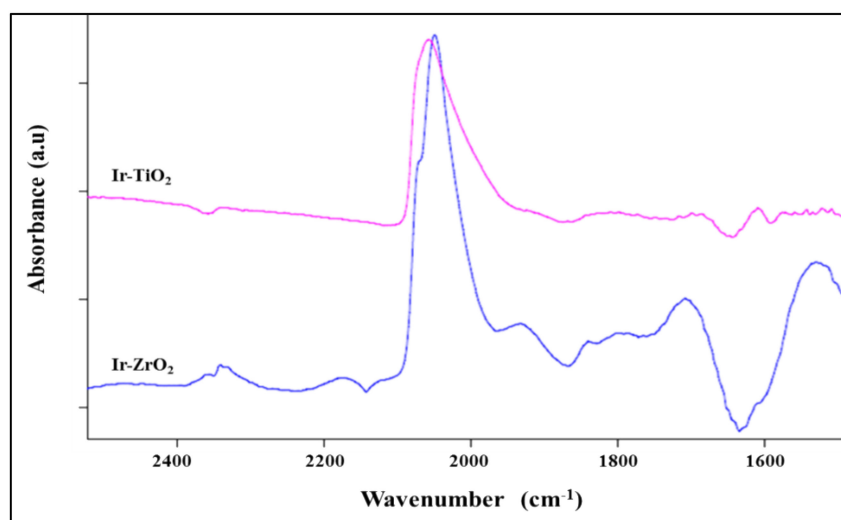


Figure 6. Fourier Transform Infrared-CO spectra of the Ir-TiO₂ and Ir-ZrO₂ catalysts (at 200 °C).

2.1.6. CO Chemisorption

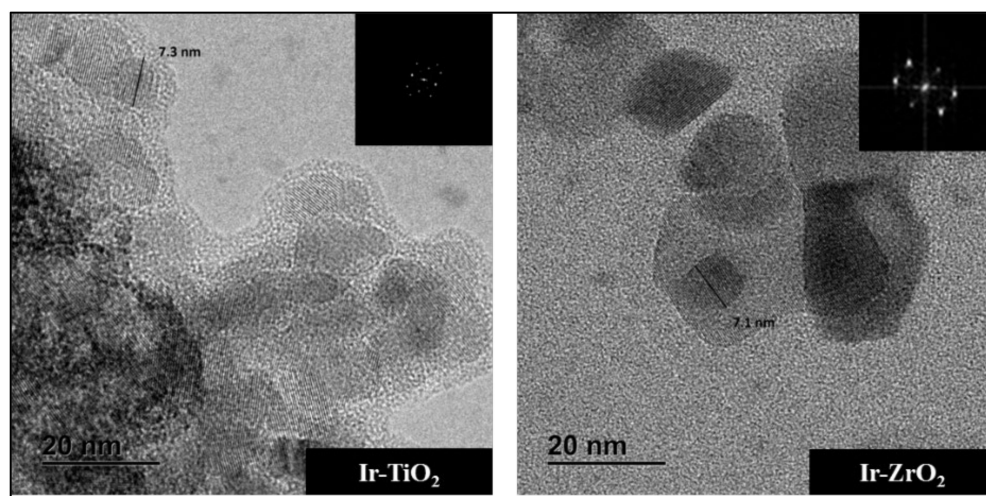
The CO chemisorption properties of the TiO₂ and ZrO₂ supported Ir catalysts at different reducing temperatures are depicted in Table 3. There was no CO chemisorbed on the bare supports during the CO chemisorption studies, thus, the results obtained over the catalysts are attributed to the Ir present on the respective supports. Similarly to the data presented for the Pt systems [11,36], the CO chemisorption capacity, metallic surface area, and metal dispersion, decrease with increasing reduction temperature. The Ir-ZrO₂ catalyst showed much better CO chemisorption capacity, metallic surface area, metal dispersion, and smaller crystallite sizes, than the TiO₂ supported catalyst. This result is also possibly due to the acidic Ir precursor (IrCl₃) used to synthesise these catalysts, which results in stronger interactions with the ZrO₂ support since it is more electropositive and basic than TiO₂ [41]. Additionally, the synthesis pH plays a significant role in controlling the zeta potential of these two supports, whereby the ZrO₂ at its isoelectric point (IEP) (pH 7.4) has a higher probability of metal interaction with the surface of the ZrO₂ (pH 5.5) than the TiO₂ (pH 6.0) [42]. As a result, the metallic surface areas, metal dispersions, and the CO chemisorption values of the Ir-ZrO₂ catalyst are higher than those of the Ir-TiO₂ catalyst. Increasing the reduction temperature results in lower values, which are also likely due to the reduction of the supports close to the active metal because of the strong support to metal interactions, as observed for the Pt systems [43]. The Ir metal becomes decorated by partially reduced oxides that migrate towards/onto the metal, suppressing the chemisorption capacity seen in Table 3 at higher reduction temperatures. The results obtained can be related to those from the TPR experiments, where the support shows the reduction that Ir catalyses at higher reduction temperature. These supports on their own showed no reduction and, according to reported data, these reductions would occur at temperatures beyond 500 °C [33,35].

Table 3. CO chemisorption data of the Ir-TiO₂ and Ir-ZrO₂ catalysts.

Catalysts	Properties	Temperature of Reduction		
		200 °C	370 °C	500 °C
Ir-TiO ₂	Metal dispersion (%)	61.4	52.1	36.3
	Metallic surface area (m ² /g metal)	107.9	89.4	73.3
	Crystallite size (nm)	6.4	7.0	7.0
	Chemisorption capacity (CO/Ir)	0.49	0.31	0.24
	Metal dispersion (%)	91.4	77.5	54.0
Ir-ZrO ₂	Metallic surface area (m ² /g metal)	160.6	133.0	109.1
	Crystallite size (nm)	5.3	5.8	5.9
	Chemisorption capacity (CO/Ir)	0.69	0.44	0.35

2.1.7. Electron Microscopy

Transmission Electron Microscopic images of the supported Ir catalysts are shown in Figure 7, with inserts showing the selected area diffraction patterns, indicating that the samples have a crystalline nature. Particle sizes presented for the oxide phases were similar on both supports at ± 7 nm. Figure S4 (ESM) shows the particle size distribution over these catalysts. It could be observed that both the catalysts had a high number of particles with a particle size ranging from 5 nm to 9 nm. These were clearly distinguished from the supports by the lattice fringes in the images presented. These particles are also within a reported particle size range (6–7 nm) for supported Ir catalysts calcined at 400 °C [38].

**Figure 7.** HRTEM images of the Ir catalysts (Inset: selected area diffractions).

2.2. Catalytic Testing

2.2.1. CO Oxidation

The activity for the catalysts towards the oxidation of CO in an H₂ free feed is shown in Figure 8. The onset temperature for the oxidation reaction starts at 80 °C. After 120 °C, the Ir-TiO₂ catalyst shows slightly higher conversions than the Ir-ZrO₂ catalyst. Both catalysts reach maximum CO conversions at 200 °C, using stoichiometric amounts of O₂ in the feed (ESM, Figure S5). A high CO conversion of ~80% was obtained over Ir-TiO₂, while Ir-ZrO₂ showed a slightly lower conversion of ~70%. The bare supports, i.e., TiO₂ and ZrO₂, showed no CO, O₂, and H₂ conversions during this study.

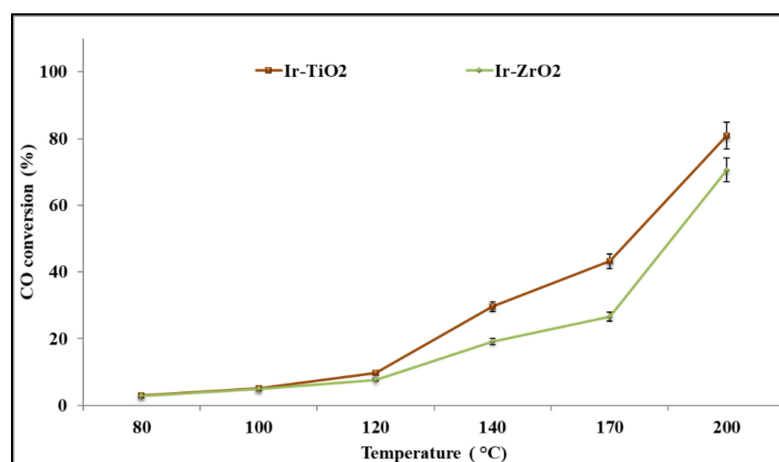


Figure 8. CO oxidation reactions over the catalysts with increasing temperatures (GHSV 12,000 h^{−1}).

2.2.2. PROX Reaction

The catalyst activity of the Ir supported on TiO₂ and ZrO₂ catalysts for the PROX reaction with a high H₂ concentration (50%), is presented in Figure 9. The accompanying O₂ conversions are shown in the electronic Supplementary Materials, Figure S4. Both the catalysts are active at temperatures lower than 80 °C (Figure 9). A highest CO conversion of 6.4%, with a selectivity towards CO₂ of ~20%, was obtained at a temperature of 80 °C. At temperatures greater than 80 °C, the conversion of CO decreases to ~1% and remains constant, while CO₂ selectivity decreases significantly. The Ir-ZrO₂ catalyst, on the other hand, shows an increase in CO conversion with increasing temperature from 80 °C, and reaches a maximum of ~20% at 200 °C. The CO₂ selectivity for this catalyst was at its highest at 80 °C, and thereafter also decreased with increasing temperature, indicating that the oxidation of H₂ becomes more favourable. This is also evident from the O₂ conversions shown for the catalysts (ESM, Figure S4).

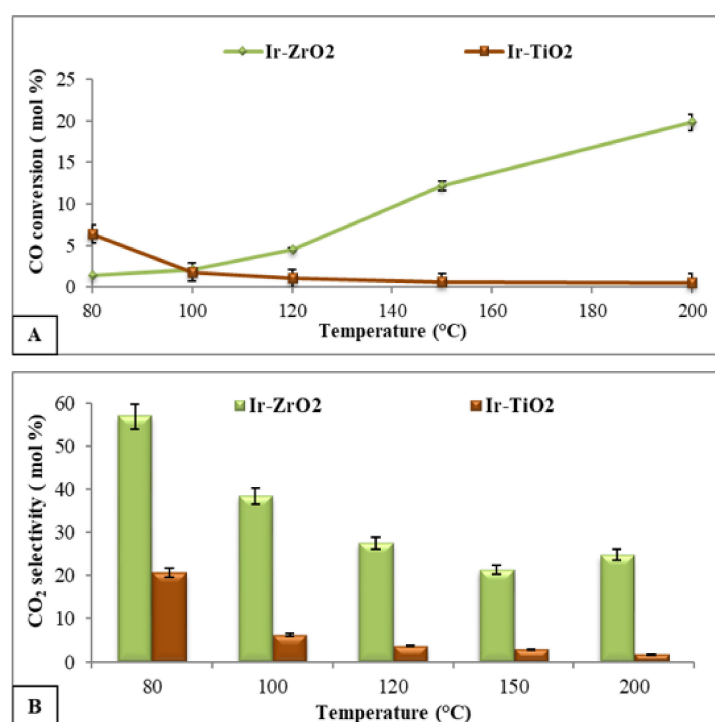


Figure 9. CO conversions (A) and selectivity towards CO₂ (B) for the TiO₂ and ZrO₂ supported Ir catalysts (GHSV 12,000 h^{−1}).

The PROX reaction results, obtained over the supported Ir catalysts, relate to those obtained for supported Pt-TiO₂ catalysts. The trends based on the supports are almost identical, indicating that the behaviour of these supported catalysts is controlled by the redox properties of the active metals present on them. These results match those obtained from TPR, TPO and CO chemisorption, where the Ir-TiO₂ catalyst with a lower reducibility profile, higher oxidation profile, and lower chemisorption values than the Ir-ZrO₂ catalyst, was inferior for the PROX reaction. These findings relate closely to reports where ZrO₂, being a “hardier” (less easily reduced) support compared to TiO₂, is shown to have a stronger interaction between the support and the active metal [33,41–44]. Recently, Coletta et al. [45] stated that high activity in CO conversion could be related to the high metallic dispersion over the catalyst support. Thus, the higher activity of the catalyst could be related to the high Ir site dispersion on the support surface.

The low activity found for these catalysts could likely be occurring by a redox mechanism between CO and O₂, similar to that of H₂ and O₂, over the Ir-TiO₂ catalyst, following the Mars and van Krevelen (MvK) mechanism. The O₂ conversion confirms this result for the catalyst (ESM, Figure S4), where high conversions > 90% are observed but with very low CO conversions. In general, the CO conversions depend on the oxygen storage capacity, or the available oxygen vacancies, of the catalyst. The O₂-TPO profiles show that both the catalysts reoxidise even at room temperature, which could be due to the high number of oxygen vacancies. In general, the stoichiometric conversion ratio between CO and O₂ is 1:0.5, which shows that each mole of CO needs an oxygen vacancy for the complete conversion. Thus, the present catalyst with a high number of oxygen vacancies showed a high conversion of CO. The high oxygen conversions also support this.

The Ir-ZrO₂ catalyst, on the other hand, allows adsorbed CO to interact with molecular O₂ from the feed following the Langmuir–Hinshelwood (LH) mechanism, similar to that of the Pt-ZrO₂ catalysts shown in our previous study [11]. A study by Huang et al. [17] reported a non-competitive LH mechanism for a 1.6 wt.% Ir-CeO₂ catalyst, where Ir particles themselves were involved in both the CO and H₂ oxidation pathways. However, Ir becomes too active to selectively oxidise CO with increasing temperatures and favours H₂ oxidation instead, which is evident in this study where CO₂ selectivity decreases with increasing temperature (Figure 9). The H₂ conversions confirm this over the catalysts (ESM, Figure S5), which show an increase in temperature. Ir-TiO₂ shows a higher H₂ conversion than the Ir-ZrO₂ catalyst, though the CO conversions were much lower.

Another study by Okumura et al. [46] reported that a 1.8 wt.% Ir-TiO₂ catalyst synthesised at pH 7, where the point of zero charges of TiO₂ was controlled (negatively charged) for better interaction with an Ir⁴⁺ salt, giving higher stabilities for the catalysts at 27 °C using a feed consisting of 1% CO balanced with air. However, this catalyst still deactivated rapidly after 7h. Comparing these findings with this study, firstly, the amount of O₂ used is too high for fuel cell application, where this catalyst would give much higher H₂ oxidation. Secondly, the catalyst was not stable for the reaction and showed rapid deactivation early in the reaction. Lastly, the temperature at which maximum CO conversions were obtained was 27 °C, and an onboard fuel cell operates at 80 °C; therefore, by adding to the O₂ that is supplied, a heat exchanger would need to be introduced.

For the reactions carried out in this study, the catalysts were stable over the entire heating cycle, irrespective of the low CO conversions. Upon cooling, the results obtained were very similar, showing no signs of deactivation. However, the Ir-ZrO₂ catalyst was much more effective than the Ir-TiO₂ catalyst. Future work on these materials, such as varying the particle size, support, and pre-treatments, could show promising results towards the oxidation reaction in the presence of H₂.

2.2.3. Hydrogenation Reactions

Figure 10 shows the CO hydrogenation reaction profiles over the Ir supported on TiO₂ and ZrO₂ catalysts. It is seen that these catalysts are active for the hydrogenation reaction, with the onset of activity after 200 °C over both the catalysts. Temperatures above

200 °C for these reactions, unlike the PROX reaction, pose no complications, such as the unwanted oxidation of H₂, since no O₂ is present in the feed. With an increase in the reaction temperature, the CO conversions of both the catalysts increase accordingly. The Ir-ZrO₂ catalyst reached maximum CO conversions of 99.9% at 350 °C, and this remained constant to 370 °C. The Ir-TiO₂ catalyst, in contrast, reached a maximum CO conversion at 370 °C of ~88%. The selectivity towards CH₄ for both these catalysts were above 90% for all the reaction temperatures investigated, indicating that these catalysts enhance CO methanation compared to WGS. Hydrogen conversions, shown in Figure 10, indicate that only a small fraction of the H₂ is used at these high CO conversions. Also, any CH₄ formed by CO conversion can be reused in the reformer for onboard applications, therefore, H₂ loss remains minimal [47].

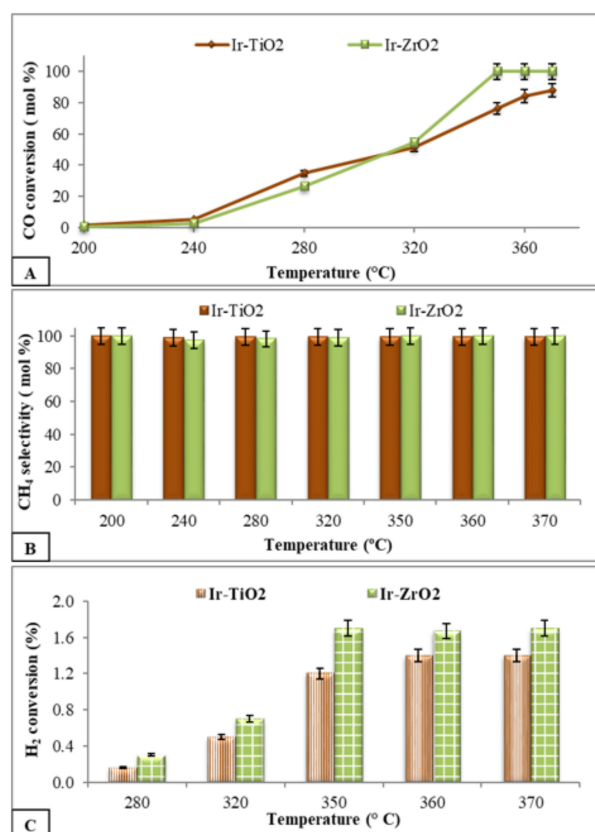


Figure 10. CO hydrogenation reaction over the TiO₂ and ZrO₂ supported catalysts with increasing temperatures, CO conversion (A), CH₄ selectivity (B) and H₂ conversion (C) (GHSV 12,000 h⁻¹).

The Ir-ZrO₂ catalyst showed better CO chemisorption capacity, metallic surface area, metal dispersion, smaller particle sizes, and thus better catalytic activity, than the Ir-TiO₂ catalyst, due to the strong metal support interactions of ZrO₂ and Ir, which resulted from controlling the IEP during the synthesis, which gave better metal support interactions. The availability of active metal for CO hydrogenation on the Ir-ZrO₂ catalyst at higher temperatures was enhanced compared to the Ir-TiO₂ catalyst. Furthermore, there is evidence of CO adsorption (CO chemisorption) still taking place on both the catalysts at higher temperatures, even past the hydrogenation reaction at 500 °C, which reveals that Ir active sites are still available and not completely embedded in the support. Following the high-temperature WGS reaction, these Ir catalysts may have the promise to remove the trace CO present in the reformat gas.

3. Materials and Methods

Commercial Titania (99.7% metal basis, Alfa Aesar) and Zirconia (99.7% metal basis, Alfa Aesar) were used in this study. All catalysts were prepared by the deposition–precipitation technique [48]. The prepared catalysts were characterised by using physisorption, chemisorption, diffraction, spectroscopic, and microscopic techniques. The catalytic testing was performed in a continuous flow fixed bed reactor in a downflow mode at atmospheric pressure. The inlet and outlet gaseous products of the reactor were analysed on an online Agilent Micro-GC CP-4900 TCD housing 3 channels. The amount of CO and H₂ converted during the reaction was calculated on the basis of inlet and outlet gas concentrations [49]. The detailed procedures for the catalyst synthesis, catalyst characterisation, and catalytic testing are given in the Electronic Supplementary Materials to this paper (ESM, Sections S1–S3).

4. Conclusions

All catalysts were active for the oxidation of CO, showing significant activity in the temperature range screened (80–200 °C). However, both the catalysts showed low activity for the PROX reactions since the oxidation of H₂ was favoured, as opposed to the desired CO oxidation. Characterisation data of the prepared catalysts showed that supports with well-dispersed Ir particles formed interstitials (O₂ vacancies) due to the strong metal–support interactions at the interface. These interactions allow for partial reduction of the supports which the Ir catalyses on the surface. Therefore, H₂ reacts with O₂, forming H₂O instead of CO₂ in the PROX reaction. The Ir-TiO₂ catalyst follows the Mars and van Krevelen pathway, using lattice oxygen for the oxidation reaction, while the Ir-ZrO₂ catalysts follow the Langmuir–Hinshelwood pathway.

The results are promising for both Ir supported on TiO₂ and ZrO₂ catalysts with respect to lowering the quantity of CO in reformat gas to low ppm levels by CO hydrogenation. Ir-ZrO₂ gave 99.9% CO conversion above 350 °C, with high CH₄ selectivity. Controlling the IEP of the catalysts during the synthesis resulted in better dispersion of Ir over the supports, thus favouring the interaction between metal and support. TiO₂ and ZrO₂ supported Ir catalysts prepared by the deposition–precipitation method show promising activity for the hydrogenation of CO, following the high temperature WGS reaction for removing trace quantities of CO. These catalysts now need to be subjected to ideal exit WGS reformat feeds for further investigation to determine the catalyst's stability in the presence of CO₂ and H₂O.

Supplementary Materials: The following are available online at <https://www.mdpi.com/article/10.3390/catal11111378/s1>, Figure S1. XRD diffractograms of the supports and catalysts; Figure S2. XPS spectra showing the Zr 3d5/2, Ti 2p3/2 and the O 1s levels for the catalysts; Figure S3. FTIR-CO analyses of the catalysts with increasing temperatures; Figure S4. O₂ conversions of the supported Ir catalysts for (A): Total oxidation and (B): PROX; Figure S5. H₂ conversions of the supported Ir catalysts for the PROX reaction.

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