

Learning Surface and Vertical Mobility for Enceladus Direct Ocean Access

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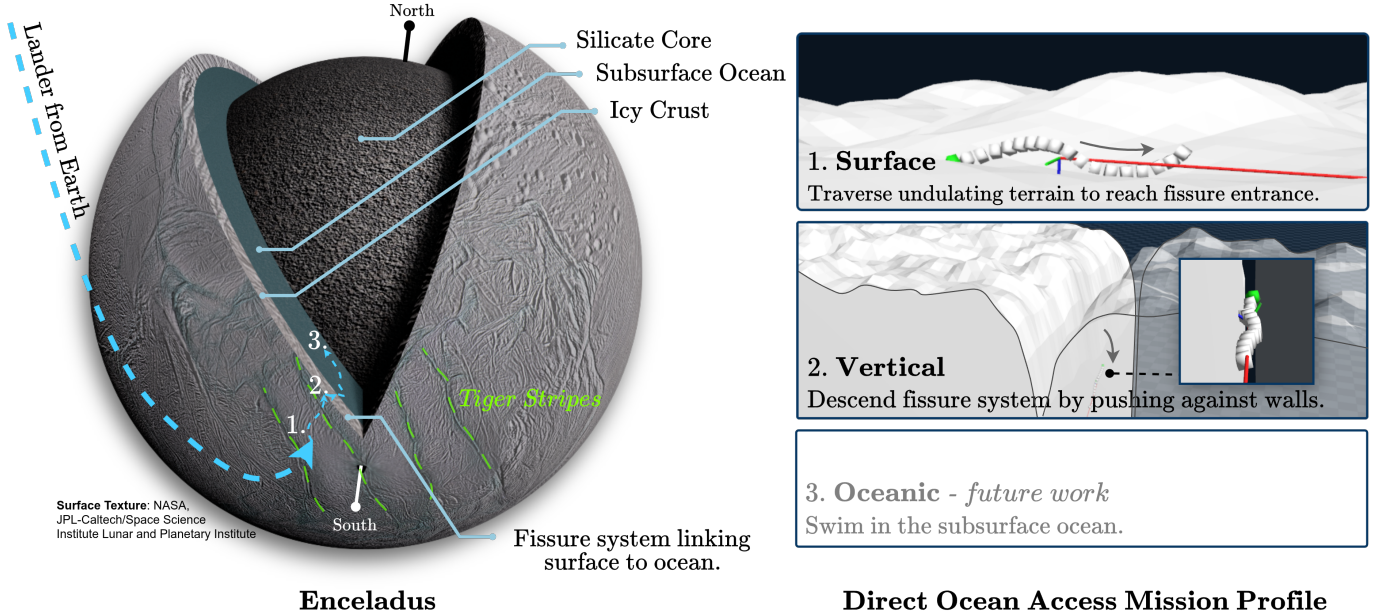


Fig. 1: Robotic exploration of Enceladus via direct ocean access, as originally proposed in [9] and [10].

Abstract—Of the places in our solar system that may support life, Enceladus stands out due to the presence of complex organic molecules and possible hydrothermal vent activity in its subsurface ocean, with direct access theorized via fissure vents at its icy south pole. However, robotic exploration of the lunar interior requires first negotiating complex, undulatory surface terrain before transitioning into a vertical descent mode once inside the fissure system. Such a mission profile demands advances in multi-modal robotic locomotion which to-date are yet to be realized. In this work, we take a step towards enabling this vision by contributing a reinforcement learning controller capable of robust surface locomotion and vertical mobility with a snake-like morphology. Simulation experiments provide a proof-of-concept validation of our method. Our work takes a small step towards the broader idea of Robotic Exploration 3.0 [51]: *intelligent robots capable of adapting at mission-time, enabling one-shot exploration of celestial bodies*.

I. INTRODUCTION

Enceladus, a moon of Saturn, features a rocky silicate core in contact with a sub-surface liquid water ocean, encased in a cryogenic icy crust tens of kilometers thick [39]. A set of fissures, or *tiger stripes*, at the south pole vent gaseous plumes into space, suggesting a continuous path from the surface to ocean [30] (fig. 1). Combined with known complex organic molecules in plume samples [15] and theorized hydrothermal vent activity [31], Enceladus ranks highly on the list of places within reach that may support life beyond Earth [48] [8].

These factors motivate strong interest in robotic exploration [41] [71] [1] [42], particularly via direct ocean access [9]. Here, a robot must (1) traverse the undulating surface terrain from a delivery lander to fissure opening, (2) vertically descend the fissure while fighting turbulent, possibly supersonic [46], plume flow and (3) swim in the subsurface ocean.

Each phase requires fundamentally different locomotion modes (surface, vertical, and oceanic) making conventional morphologies — such as rovers, drones, or quadrupeds — unsuitable for the complete mission profile.

Several novel robotic mission concepts have been proposed in response [50] [67], most recently the Exo-Biology Extant Life Surveyor [10] [69]. EELS is a 4.4m, 100kg snake-like robot under development at the NASA Jet Propulsion Laboratory. With 46 articulated degrees of freedom, EELS is capable of potentially infinite gaits for traversing the surface, vertical, and oceanic biomes of Enceladus. Considerable progress has been made towards building specialized controllers for each mode, albeit in isolation. Surface locomotion was demonstrated through a variety of shape-based gaits [66] [47] [17], vertical mobility via screw propulsion [53], and swimming, while not yet demonstrated on EELS, has been studied on other snake-like platforms [28] [23].

However, these control methodologies are disjoint, creating discontinuities at the surface-vent and vent-ocean mode

transitions where the robot must seamlessly adapt between different locomotion strategies. To date, entering vertical mobility requires ‘placing’ EELS in a crevasse with the correct pose, assisted by a wire harness. As highlighted during the 2023 EELS Athabasca field test, “*more work is needed to integrate surface and vertical components into a single robotic system capable of safely executing a full mission from lander to subglacial ocean*” [69, pg 8].

To address this challenge, and inspired by prior work [21], we propose a hierarchical learning-based control architecture. At a low level, reinforcement learning is used to train specialized locomotion policies for *both* surface and vertical mobility tasks by converting waypoints into commanded joint deflections based on proprioceptive observations. A high-level controller would then learn waypoint placement and which locomotion skill to employ¹. As such, this work offers the following contributions:

- An RL framework to produce robust serpentoid surface and vertical mobility over undulating terrain and through fissure-like gaps.
- Simulation experiments that demonstrate a surface-to-vertical mission profile from delivery lander, over terrain, down a fissure-vent opening, and into the lunar interior.

More broadly, this work builds towards the wider, paradigm-shifting idea of Robotic Exploration 3.0 (RE-3.0): *intelligent robots capable of adapting at mission-time, enabling one-shot exploration of celestial bodies without requiring many expeditionary campaigns* [51]. In our case, there are $n = 3$ things we desire our robot to do, but we don’t want to send 3 separate robots [27]. Instead, a hyper redundant snake-like morphology, coupled with learnable autonomy, emerges as a viable solution to realizing RE-3.0 by learning surface and vertical locomotion with a single platform and control architecture.

II. RELATED WORKS

Learning robust surface and vertical mobility with a single platform has been a long-standing challenge for legged and limbless robots, especially in confined environments that limit actuation range and require precise contact control. To gauge progress in each dimension, fig. 2 informally compares locomotion distance records across prior surface and vertical robotics literature, colored by morphology. We believe such a comparison is useful because it shows perspective when comparing different control architectures relative to traversal distance requirements for direct ocean access: Enceladus’s fissures are estimated to reach depths of 6km [49], while propulsive landing systems, we theorize, could provide targeting accuracy within tens of kilometers. Enabling autonomous robotic navigation to meet this spatial envelope remains largely unstudied.

The confined environment within Enceladus’s vent system is theorized to constrict towards a narrow throat [32], making

a snake-like morphology with small cross-sectional area an appealing choice.

Surface Mobility: At surface level over short spatial distances ($< 100m$), serpentoid locomotion typically employs “*shape-based*” gaits such as open-loop sidewinding [77] or lateral undulation [11]. Here, sinusoidal curves propagate down the backbone to produce forward motion. Common approaches rely on either expertly designed gait equations [52] or parametric approximations to fit the snake body against a reference shape or curve [20] [19] [76]. However, as predominantly open-loop approaches, adaptation is limited, constraining deployment to near-planar terrain.

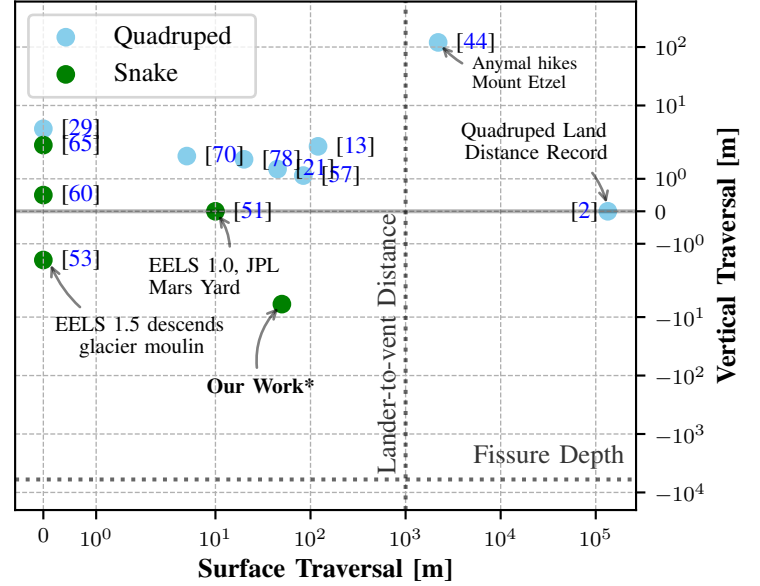


Fig. 2: Informal comparison of vertical and surface traversal distance records across prior robotics literature. The estimated depth of Enceladus’s fissures is $\approx 6km$ [49], we theorize a propulsive lander would have an error margin $\approx 10km$. *Asterisk denotes simulation only, no hardware validation.

Snake robot hyper-redundancy also introduces many degrees of freedom (DOFs), creating high-dimensional action spaces. Prior works have addressed this through dimensionality-reduction techniques: backbone curves approximate the robot’s complex body shape using a parameterized spline [20]; multi-agent RL was proposed to improve scalability by treating each mechanical module as an independent agent [75]; and central pattern generators (CPGs) encode gaits using compact frequency, phase shift, and amplitude parameter sets [26, 25, 72]. Augmentation with RL to automatically tune CPG parameters has also been explored [36, 54]. Despite such enhancements, rigidity to a geometric reference makes these techniques fragile when adapting to mobility-stressing terrains such as steep inclinations or undulating surfaces. In these settings, dynamic gait adjustments that conform with local surface curvature become critical.

One promising technique to bridge this gap are end-to-end learning-based approaches, which train a neural network to map pixels [6], tactile feedback [37], and or proprioceptive

¹As this is ongoing work, the high-level controller remains unimplemented and is represented in by a human operator for now.

state [38] directly to joint positions or velocity commands. However, in all these works, as well as [5] [61], the environment has remained a flat plane. To the best of our knowledge, learning end-to-end shape-based gaits over challenging undulating surfaces has not yet been explored.

Vertical Mobility: Over short spatial distances ($< 10m$), snake robots exhibit remarkable vertical mobility for climbing trees [35] [33], pipes [65], gaps [59], ladders [64], steps [22], and steep inclinations [18]. Of these, internal pipe and gap crawling are most related to our work because they emphasize maintaining precise contact wrenches within narrow friction cones inside a confined environment while making and breaking contact.

Pipe climbing has been explored via LSTM-driven sine wave gaits [60] and arboreal concertina gaits [12], both incorporating geometric formalisms based on watching biological snakes in the wild. To climb walls, a lamprey-inspired gait used microspine anchoring to achieve near-vertical mobility [68]. However, relying on a single anchor is minimally redundant and, on Enceladus, potentially challenging to mount on a cryogenic ice wall.

To our knowledge, no prior work—simulated or real—demonstrates surface *and* vertical mobility capable of crossing complex terrain and descending un-bordered fissure-like spaces (ie, only two surfaces to push against). Direct ocean access requires traversing such spaces, in addition to translating in any lateral direction once inside the fissure.

Insights from Quadrupeds: Although the cross-sectional area of a quadruped is generally too large for Enceladus’s fissures, recent innovations in RL for agile quadrupedal parkour have proved highly successful, offering valuable cross-domain insights. Many prior works train policies capable of surface mobility tasks for trotting, running, fall recovery [74], manipulation [43], often over challenging [34] or deformable [14] terrain, and even inside confined spaces [73] [45]; Vertical mobility is also prevalent, often climbing boxes [7], stairs [13], ladders [70], or inclined surfaces. To achieve such feats, a common theme is to first learn specialized policies for each low-level locomotion skill which are then either dynamically selected by a higher-level planner at deployment time [21], or, distilled into a single policy with additional fine-tuning during post-training [56].

Of these methods, we draw inspiration from the hierarchical approach, delegating low-level locomotion to specialized policies and relying on a high-level navigation module - an idea initially proposed in [21]. This approach forms the basis of our method, explained below.

III. METHOD

Our goal is to endow a snake robot with locomotion capabilities to traverse undulating surface terrain, reach and enter a fissure opening, initiate a controlled descent between two opposing vertical faces, and arrive at a spatial goal in minimal time. Throughout the descent, contact must be maintained with fissure walls to avoid falling, and for completeness, must also

learn to climb. At surface level, Enceladus’s surface terrain features deep undulations that can entrap the snake robot, thereby necessitating realtime gait adaptability to escape traps.

To accomplish this, we employ a hierarchical reinforcement learning (RL) strategy inspired by prior work [21]. Two low-level locomotion policies are trained to first master surface and vertical mobility independently, both capable of tracking towards any arbitrary goal location in their respective planes (fig. 3). Partitioning locomotion into task-specific policies like this considerably simplifies problem complexity compared to learning both simultaneously. At deployment time, a high-level controller (*for now represented by a human operator*) is responsible for goal placement and for triggering the surface-vertical mode transition upon reaching the fissure entrance².

Both low-level surface and vertical locomotion problems have shape-based gait solution policies which can be found through framing as a Markov Decision Processes [63]. During training, the agent starts from an initializing distribution ρ (Table V and VI). At each timestep, the agent receives state $s_t \in \mathcal{S}$ and samples an action $a_t \in \mathcal{A}$ from a policy, either $\pi_{\theta}^{\text{surface or vertical}}(a|s_t)$. Upon action execution, the agent transitions to a new state s_{t+1} and receives reward $r_{t+1} \in \mathcal{R}$. Off-the-shelf Proximal Policy Optimization from RSL [58] is used to find parameters θ that maximize the expected discounted sum of future reward. A multilayer perceptron with [512, 256, 128] hidden units over three layers and elu activations is used to approximate the optimal π^* .

The same MDP observation and reward spaces are used for training surface and vertical mobility policies. However, we introduce the notion of principle axes \mathcal{H} depending on the task: for surface mobility, $\mathcal{H} = \{x, y\}$ and for vertical, $\mathcal{H} = \{x, z\}$. All policies are trained in Genesis-World [4], a GPU-accelerated robotics simulator.

Observations: We define the observation vector $\mathbf{o} \in \mathbb{R}^{63}$ of a low-level policy as:

$$\mathbf{o}_t = [\mathbf{d}_{\text{goal}}, \mathbf{g}_{\text{proj}}, \mathbf{v}_{\text{com}}, \mathbf{h}, h_{\text{dot}}, d_{\text{goal}}, \mathbf{q}, \dot{\mathbf{q}}, \mathbf{a}_{t-1}]^T \quad (1)$$

TABLE I: Notation

Symbol	Description
\mathbf{p}_{goal}	World goal position specified by navigation module.
\mathbf{p}_{com}	World snake center of mass
\mathbf{d}_{goal}	Vector from robot center-of-mass to goal (normed, in \mathcal{H}).
\mathbf{g}_{proj}	Gravity vector in robot’s tail-link frame.
\mathbf{v}_{com}	Linear velocity of center of mass in the world frame.
\mathbf{h}	Heading vector of robot, normed, in principle plane \mathcal{H} .
h_{dot}	Cosine similarity between heading \mathbf{h} and \mathbf{d}_{goal}
d_{goal}	Distance between center of mass \mathbf{p}_{com} and goal \mathbf{p}_{goal} .
$\mathbf{q}, \dot{\mathbf{q}}, \tau$	Joint positions, velocities, torques.
\mathbf{a}_{t-1}	Previous action taken by the policy.

Importantly, observations exclusively utilize proprioceptive features, nothing is explicitly known about the geometry of surrounding terrain. Surprisingly, we find it’s still possible for each policy to adapt its gait to the local environmental purely by knowing joint positions and the previous action. For example, at deployment time, reactive behavior can be observed

²In future work, the high-level human ‘controller’ could be replaced by a specialized task and mission planner similar to [24].

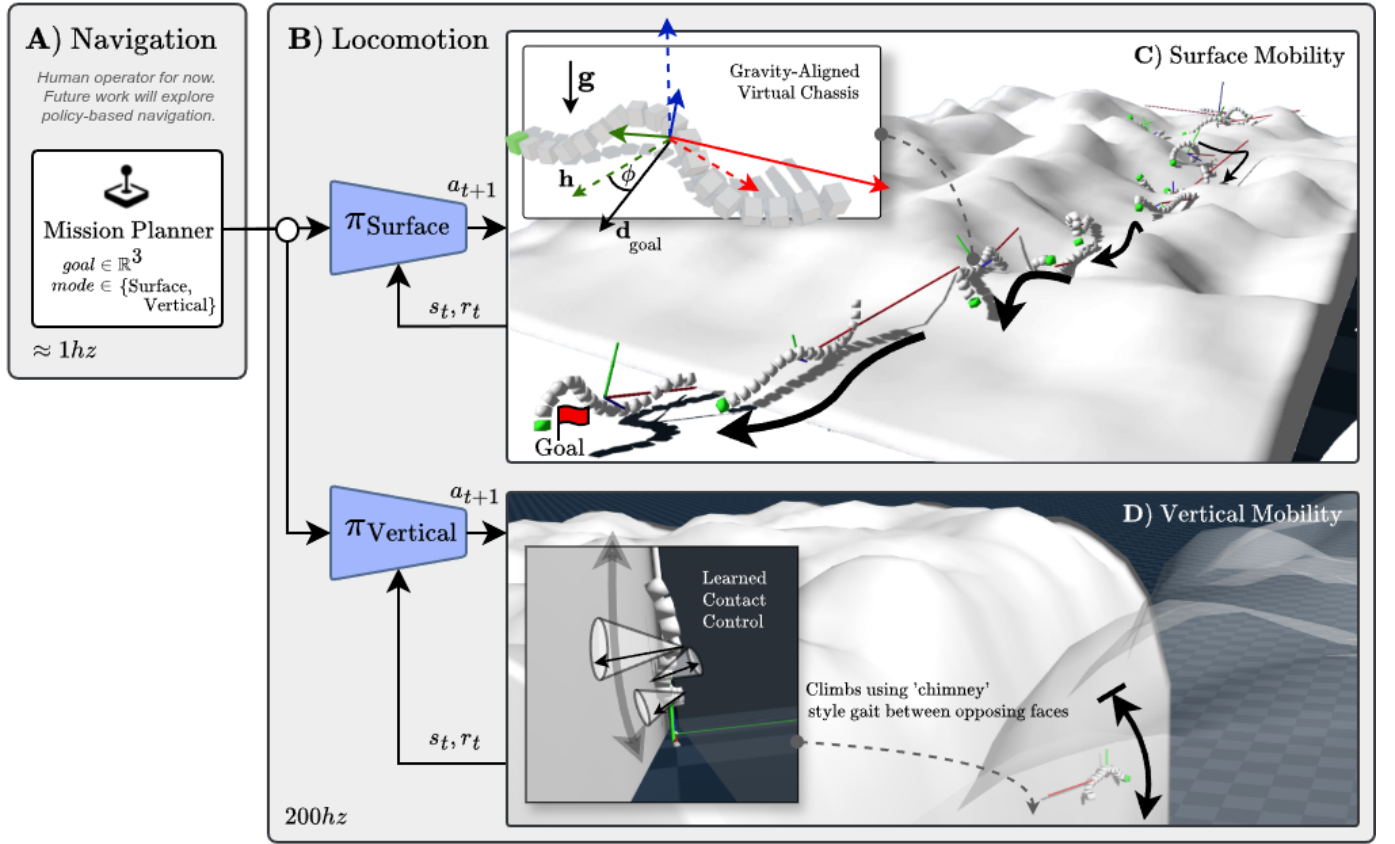


Fig. 3: **Methodology Overview:** Learning surface and vertical snake-robot locomotion. (A) Navigation module (human operator) provides high-level waypoint and mode switching commands - *future work aims to make this autonomous*. (B) Low-level locomotion module selects task based on commanded mode and converts desired goal into joint actuation. (C) Surface task trained to locomote over a flat plane before deployment on undulating terrain and obstacles. (D) Vertical task learns to traverse a simplified vent fissure formed between two opposing faces via a chimney gait and learned contact control.

where, upon getting stuck in a deep surface undulation, the agent is able make subtle gait adjustments in realtime to escape the hole and continue on its way.

Reward: Both surface and vertical tasks utilize the following reward function eq. (5). A progress term [62] incentivizes moving the agent’s center of mass \mathbf{p}_{com} to the goal \mathbf{p}_{goal} in minimal time. Energy rewards minimize the magnitude of actions \mathbf{a}_t , ensuring smoothness and efficiency. Components are linearly scaled by $\alpha_1 = 1, \alpha_2 = 0.001$, obtained by manual tuning, and Δt the integration timestep.

$$v_t = \frac{\|\mathbf{p}_{goal} - \mathbf{p}_{com}\|_2}{\Delta t} \quad (2)$$

$$r_{\text{progress}} = v_{t-1} - v_t \quad (3)$$

$$r_{\text{energy}} = -\|\mathbf{a}_t\|_2^2 \quad (4)$$

$$r_t = \alpha_1 r_{\text{progress}} + \alpha_2 r_{\text{energy}} \quad (5)$$

Note this simplified design over the reward function in our previous work [47], dispensing with safety and heading components and featuring two terms rather than four. In hindsight, penalizing heading likely complicated learning by prohibiting agents from freely moving in a given direction with any orientation, an otherwise defining characteristic of robust shape-based gaits.

Virtual Chassis: Similar to our prior work [47], we build upon the established *virtual chassis* [55] for snake robots as our primary reference frame. However, a subtle but significant modification is made by ensuring the z up-axis is gravity aligned, finding this increases robustness in the presence of rolling gaits. This change also ensures the y -axis remains parallel to the ground, which forms an intuitive reference for the snake’s orientation heading \mathbf{h} in eq. (1).

Terminal Conditions: Agents are terminated after n timesteps. To avoid artificially correlated states during training, the timestep index of each vectorized environment is randomized before training. If an agent reaches a goal before episode termination, a new goal is uniformly sampled. See appendix parameters for randomization details.

Terrain Generator: To facilitate training and deployment in simulation, a parameterized terrain and fissure model was developed. The geometry is based upon [30], modelling tiger stripes as tidally-flexed vertical slots that puncture the ice shell. Due to Enceladus’s 33-hour eccentric orbit around Saturn, tidal forces are imparted on the crust, causing compression and expansion at the vent interface. The width of our fissure is therefore variable. To further increase difficulty, layered perlin noise was imposed, creating surface undulations [16]. However, for vertical mobility, we found it necessary to

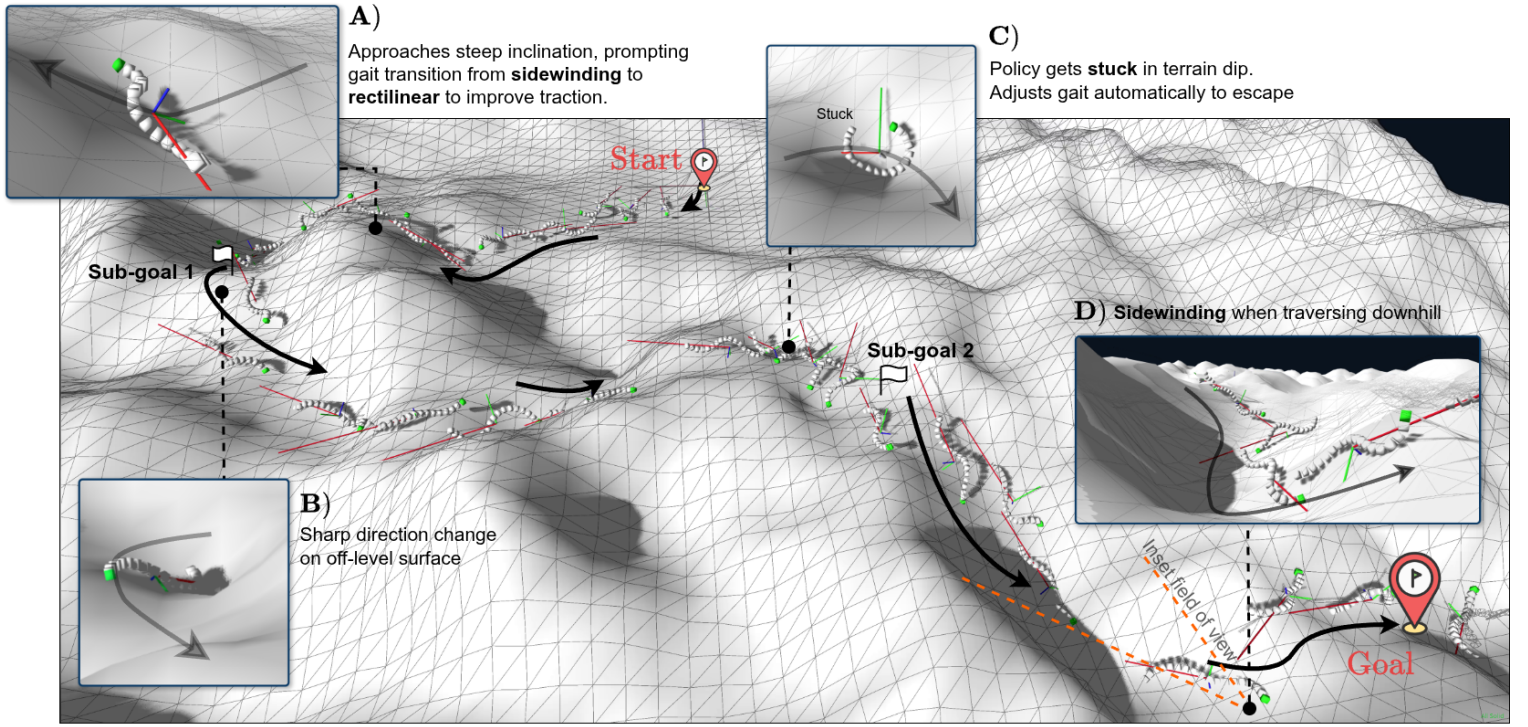


Fig. 4: **Surface Mobility:** Evaluation of surface mobility policy over randomly-generated perlin noise terrain. Starting from green flag, the agent (A) encounters a steep slope and adjusts gait from rectilinear to sidewinding, improving contact traction. (B) Performs a direction change on an off-camber slope after reaching first sub-goal. (C) Gets stuck in a pit. After a period of re-adjustment, policy switches gate to escape. (D) Enters valley, traverses off-planar surface and climbs out to reach the final goal. See Video S1 in table II for the full rollout.

increase the static and coupling terrain friction coefficient to 5 and 2 respectively. These values are far greater than the anticipated low-friction icy fissure walls of Enceladus and constitute a key limiting assumption.

IV. RESULTS & DISCUSSION

Our method is evaluated in simulation experiments that evaluate robustness of our learned surface and vertical mobility policies.

Surface Mobility: Figure 4 demonstrates mobility over randomized perlin terrain featuring steep undulations. Evidently, the policy can robustly translate towards specified sub-goals (white flags) while adapting its gait relative to proprioceptive observations. For example, at point A, a steep inclination is reached, prompting an apparent gait transition from sidewinding to rectilinear. We speculate this increases contact patch area and improves traction, a behavior also observed in biological snakes [40]. Similar adaptability was shown at point C, where upon briefly getting stuck in a pit, the policy appears to reconfigure itself to climb out and continue on its way. Video S1 in Table II shows full the rollout.

Note this learned surface mobility policy is blind, with no mapping capabilities to provide knowledge of surrounding terrain. The chosen gait must therefore be reasoned using proprioceptive feedback alone (eq. (1)). Despite this, robust surface mobility is still possible, reflecting a broader trend

amongst other blind locomotion literature [34]. This highlights the promising potential of a hyper-redundant snake morphology coupled with learned autonomy for space exploration.

Surface-to-Vertical: Figure 5 demonstrates deployment on a simplified surface-to-vertical mobility task. After surface deployment (presumably from a delivery lander) the agent traverses undulating terrain, featuring inclinations of up to ≈ 20 degrees, while tracking towards the vent interface. After reaching the vent, the agent passively slides into the fissure, catches itself, and adopts a ‘chimney’ climbing gait, enabling a controlled descent towards the fissure floor 4m below. By passive we mean the joint effort is zero.

Note, the passive slide into the fissure is not learned, but rather triggered by the navigation module and made easier by the smooth chamfered edges of the surface-vent opening. Further, the vent-opening itself features off-distribution terrain. During testing, we found the policy can occasionally ‘fall’ into a novel state and stall. Successfully entering the fissure also depends on the human operator’s skill.

After clearing the vent opening and initiating a descent, the vertical policy systematically makes and breaks contact by pushing against the fissure walls in a rolling motion to maintain control. In prior works, this kind of coordinated behavior has, generally, only been possible through expertly designed shape-based gaits. Here, climbing behavior is emergent - we did not explicitly incentivize attributes such as

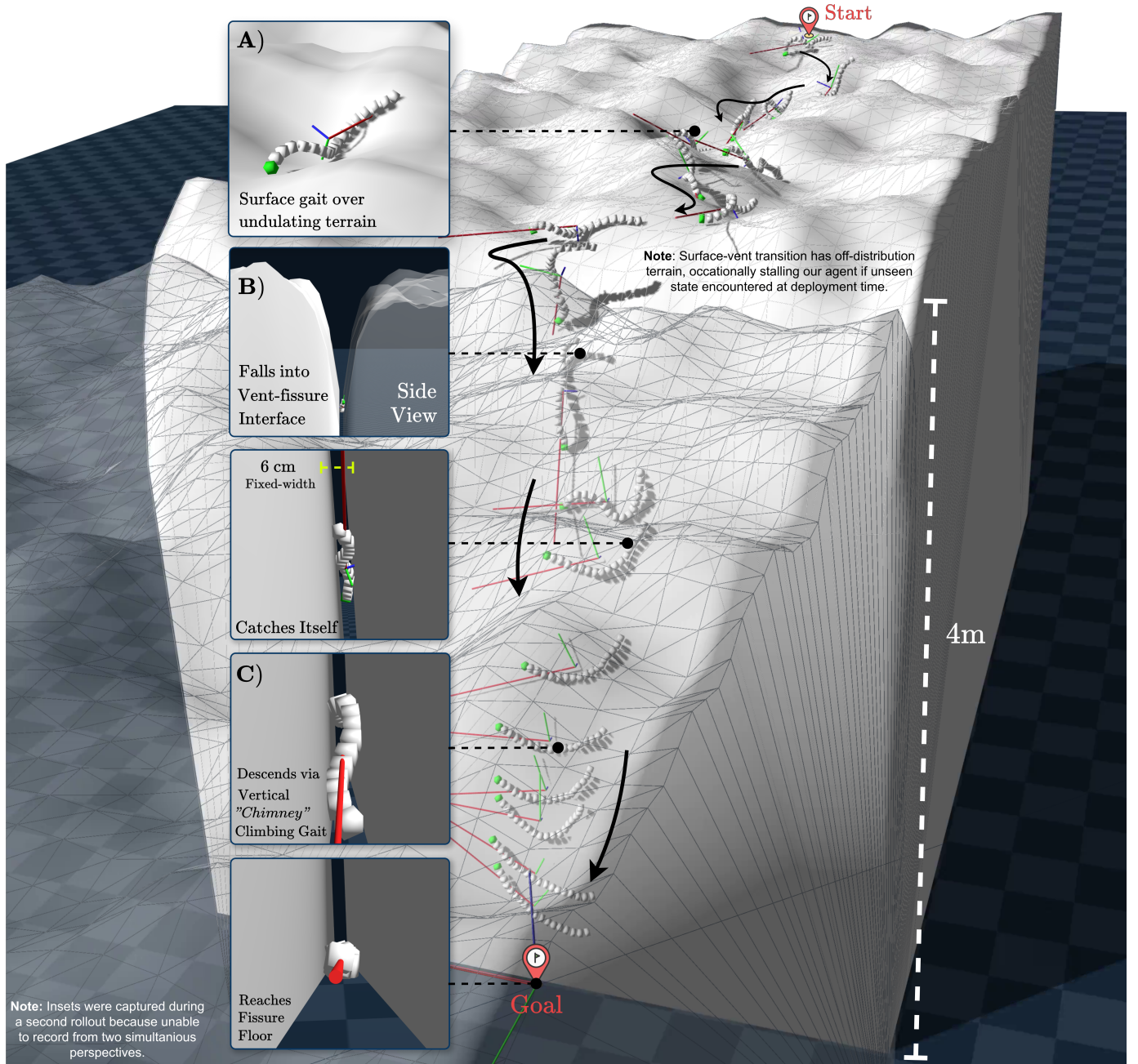


Fig. 5: Surface-to-Vertical Mobility: Deployment of our method on a surface and vertical mobility task. (A) The agent traverses over undulating surface terrain, featuring inclinations of up to ≈ 20 degrees, while tracking towards the vent interface. (B) Agent passively slides into the vent (joint effort zero), catches itself and (C) adopts a 'chimney' climbing gait, enabling a controlled descent towards the fissure floor 4m below. Note, the surface-vent transition features off-distribution terrain which occasionally stalls our agent if an unseen state is encountered at deployment time.

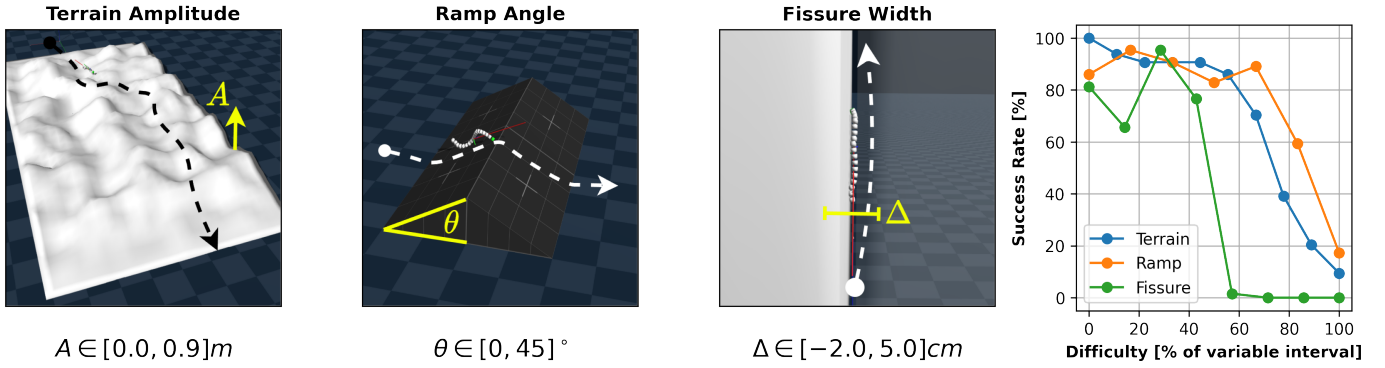


Fig. 6: **Policy Robustness**: Success rate of locomotion policy subject to increasing environment difficulty across three key features: (A) terrain perlin noise amplitude, (B) ramp angle, and (C) fissure gap width. Each data-point contains 64 rollouts.

sinusoidal motion or contact control (eq. (5)). Moreover, while this figure only shows a descent, our method is also capable of translating towards any point within the vertical fissure plane, including climbing and lateral translations (See Video S4 in Table II).

Figure 7 compares the distribution of joint angles during these surface and vertical mobility rollouts shown in fig. 5. Interestingly, the surface joint distribution (left) makes full use of the actuation range up to and including the revolute axis hard-stops at $\pm 45^\circ$. The distribution of joint angles is also symmetric, reflecting the symmetry, on average, of dominantly sinusoidal surface mobility gaits such as sidewinding and rectilinear motion. In contrast, the vertical mobility joint distribution (right) is asymmetric, reflecting the banana-like chimney climbing gait observed in fig. 5.

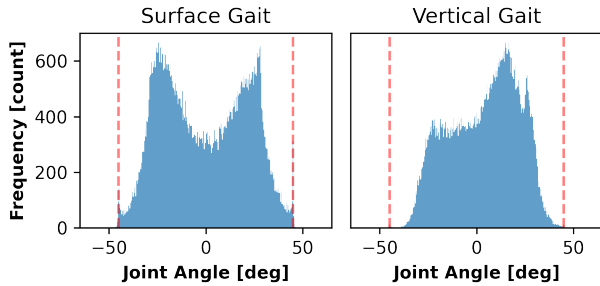


Fig. 7: **(Joint Distribution)**: Average distribution of joint positions during surface (left) and vertical (right) mobility, for the rollout shown in fig. 5. Actuator hardstops marked by dashed lines.

Robustness: Policy robustness was evaluated by varying environment properties and measuring the resultant success percentage when traversing from a start to goal point, repeated over 64 rollouts. Terrain undulation difficulty was controlled by increasing perlin noise amplitude from 0m to 0.9m, inclined surfaces by increasing the gradient of a linear ramp obstacle up to 45° , and vertical mobility by varying the width of the fissure gap by -2cm and $+5\text{cm}$ either side of that used during training (fig. 6).

In simulation, the surface policy is robust to undulations up to 0.6m in amplitude, before success rate falls off significantly. Similarly, inclinations up to $\approx 32^\circ$ can be traversed before

performance degrades. Both characteristics are a marked improvement over our prior work [47], which could only manage a flat plane. However, the vertical policy appears to be very sensitive to fissure gap width. The policy is unable to complete even a single successful rollout for width variations beyond $\pm 1\text{cm}$, suggestive of over-fitting (fig. 6 green).

Gait Analysis: Gait trajectories produced by our surface mobility policy exhibit the same turning mechanisms used by sidewinder rattlesnakes, previously observed in [3]. In biological snakes, *differential turns* are long, shallow course corrections that can continue over many gait cycles while *reversal turns* are sudden, sharp in nature for rapid direction changes [3].

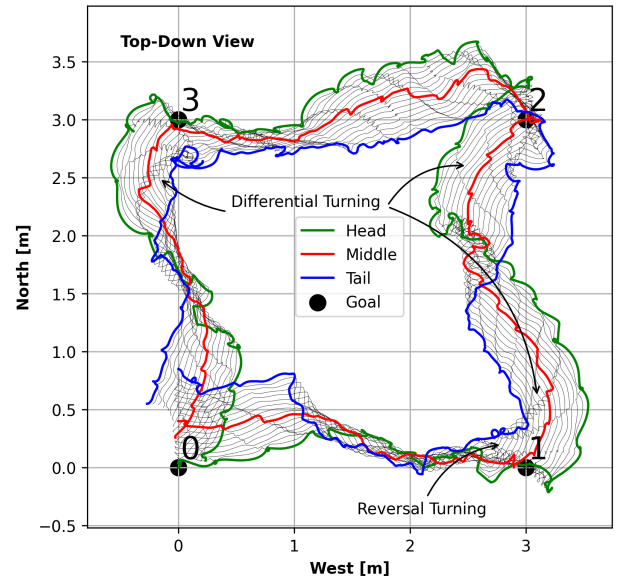


Fig. 8: **Gait Analysis**: Shape-based gait tracking waypoints in 0-1-2-3-0 sequence, reminiscent of sidewinder rattlesnake locomotion through differential and reversal turns.

Our policy exhibits both differential turning after passing waypoint 3, and a sharp reversal turn while approaching and passing point 1 (fig. 8). In our experiments, the internal policy mechanism that triggers which turning technique to be used appears subject to the snakes heading \mathbf{h} in eq. (1) and the relative position of the goal.

V. CONCLUSIONS & FUTURE WORK

Motivated by Enceladus direct ocean access [9], we developed an RL controller capable of surface locomotion over undulating terrain (fig. 4) and vertical mobility in fissure-like environments (fig. 5). Robustness analysis (fig. 6) suggests our controller can handle variations in simulated terrain geometry and surface inclinations, but is sensitive to small ($\pm 1\text{cm}$) changes in fissure width beyond those seen in training. We also observed an interesting parallel between the turning mechanism of real sidewinder desert snakes and our surface mobility policy (fig. 8).

However, to achieve the vertical mobility evident in fig. 5, several simplifications must be noted. First, the static and coupling friction coefficients of the fissure surfaces were increased to 5 and 2 respectively. This is unrealistically beyond the low-friction icy surfaces expected on Enceladus. Second, the navigation module, responsible for placing sub-goals at the vent entrance and fissure floor, and for triggering the low-level mode transition, was managed by a skilled human operator. Lastly, the entrance section of the fissure features off-distribution terrain not seen during training, occasionally stalling the vertical mobility policy if an unseen state is encountered at deployment time.

Future work could investigate further increasing vertical mobility robustness subject to increased fissure widths and reduced friction coefficients. Additional work is needed to replace our human navigation module with an autonomous equivalent, perhaps using the task and motion planner proposed in [69]. Lastly, quantifying the sim-to-real gap and deploying of our method on real hardware is an intriguing next step.

More broadly, we believe developing learning-based control systems for space robots will help realize the vision of Robotic Exploration 3.0 [51]. As humanity turns its gaze to the outer-solar system, ever-increasing communication delays demand ever-increasing levels of autonomy. This shifts mission-critical decision making from human operators on Earth to on-board the robotic explorers themselves. Learnable autonomy for robotic exploration opens the door to celestial destinations previously outside of our reach, expanding the frontier of human knowledge to new horizons in our solar system and beyond.

VI. APPENDIX

A. Supplementary Videos

The following supplementary videos are provided to support our results:

Behavior	Source
S1: Surface mobility (as in fig. 4)	YouTube
S2: Surface-to-vertical (as in fig. 5)	YouTube
S3: Vertical Mobility (timelapse)	YouTube
S4: Vertical Mobility (closeup)	YouTube

TABLE II: Supplementary Videos

B. Hyperparameters

Parameter	Value
Number of modules	18
Module Mass (kg)	10
Module Dimensions (m)	0.0325 x 0.04 x 0.04
Module I_{xx}	0.0133
Module I_{yy}	0.0175
Module I_{zz}	0.0175
Revolute Axes	[0, 0, 1] if even, else [0, 1, 0]
Joint Force Range (N)	[-100, 100]
Stiffness K_p	300
Damping K_v	10

TABLE III: Snake robot configuration

Parameter	Value
Simulator Name	genesis-world
Release Version	v0.2.1
Integration Step (s)	0.005
Integration Number of substeps	2
Gravity (ms ⁻²)	[0, 0, -9.81]
Constraint Solver	Newton

TABLE IV: Simulator configuration

Parameter	Value
Roll	$\mathcal{U}(-\pi, \pi)$
Pitch	$\mathcal{U}(0, 0)$
Yaw	$\mathcal{U}(-\pi, \pi)$
Initial Joint Positions (rad)	$\mathcal{U}(0, 0)$
Initial Joint Velocities (rads-1)	$\mathcal{U}(0, 0)$
Goal $\mathbf{g} \in \mathbb{R}^2$	$g_x \sim \mathcal{U}(-5, 5), g_y \sim \mathcal{U}(-5, 5)$
OnGoalReached(...)	Wait for episode termination
Training Scene	Flat Plane

TABLE V: Initial State Distribution (surface mobility)

Parameter	Value
Roll	$\mathcal{U}(-\pi, \pi)$
Pitch	$\mathcal{U}(0, 0)$
Yaw	$\mathcal{U}(0, 0)$
Initial Joint Positions (rad)	$\mathcal{U}(0, 0)$
Initial Joint Velocities (rads-1)	$\mathcal{U}(0, 0)$
Goal $\mathbf{g} \in \mathbb{R}^2$	$g_x \sim \mathcal{U}(-2, 2), g_z \sim \mathcal{U}(1, 4)$
OnGoalReached(...)	Sample new goal
Training Scene	Vertically oriented, opposing planes 7cm apart

TABLE VI: Initial State Distribution (vertical mobility)

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TABLE VII: Learning algorithm hyperparameters, adapted from Legged Robotics RSL RL

Parameter	Value
Algorithm	PPO
Clip parameter	0.2
Desired KL-Divergence	0.01
Entropy coefficient	0.01
Discount Factor	0.99
Lambda	0.95
Learning rate	0.001
Max gradient norm	1.0
Num learning epochs	5
Num mini batches	4
Learning Rate Schedule	adaptive
Clipped value loss	true
Value loss coefficient	1.0
Activations	elu
Actor hidden dims	[512, 256, 128]
Critic hidden dims	[512, 256, 128]
Initial noise std	1.0

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