

A Two-Year Case Study of Accessibility Systems Change in Post-Secondary Computing Education

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Abstract

Computing education is broadly inaccessible to students with disabilities. Opportunities for systems change are rare and so when the U.S. Department of Justice ruled that all digital content in higher education be accessible by April 2026, there was an opportunity to not only document how our institution changed, but influence its change, and understand what accessibility work remains. We report experiences from 2 years of change at one institution, by our university's central administration, as well as our two computer science and information science schools. We describe administrative actions, faculty and TA support, student partnerships, and content accessibility challenges, as well institutional constraints and opportunities that emerged. Across these experiences, we found that content accessibility requirements pose numerous challenges in document authoring, formatting, and sharing that are partially overcome through training, but that many open questions exist about how to make complex computing content accessible. More importantly, we found that inaccessible pedagogies may be a larger barrier and more difficult to automate or train away, given the lack of faculty capacity to learn accessible teaching practices.

CCS Concepts

• Social and professional topics → Computing education.

Keywords

Accessibility, disability, higher education.

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1 Introduction

Students with disabilities have long been systematically excluded from post-secondary computing education. If students successfully navigate school to college transition challenges [23], they face countless accessibility gaps [1, 5, 20, 21], discrimination, communication delays by disability services, self-advocacy burdens with ableist faculty, and managing system-wide disagreements between stakeholders on who is responsible for what. They encounter poorly structured digital content, poor contrast, inaccessible tools and PDFs, creating screen reader and vision barriers to basic access of course content [2, 17]. These gaps persist through graduate school, where collaboration, advising, and community participation emerge as new challenges [12]. Students often form communities of mutual care, advocacy, resistance, creating constructive disruptions that compel institutions to address accessibility gaps.

These gaps are well known by accessibility experts [4, 8], who have offered concrete strategies to make physical spaces welcoming to students of all abilities, to make digital content accessible, and to help faculty learn universal design strategies to minimize the need for academic accommodations. But the key barriers to these changes are cultural and structural. Prior work makes a strong case that post-secondary education settings are ableist, that the only sustainable change is systemic [7, 27], and that a key mechanism of resistance to change is gate-keeping through process, prioritization, and documentation gaps [31]. Despite substantial community efforts in CS such as *AccessComputing* and *TeachAccess*, and institutional efforts to address skill and capacity gaps [28], accessible computing education has rarely been an institutional priority.

This has changed politically in the past few years in the U.S. Section 504 of the *Rehabilitation Act* of 1973¹ and the *Americans with Disabilities Act* of 1990², both lay out numerous requirements on primary, secondary, and post-secondary education, including the requirement of student disability services. But only in April of 2024 did the U.S. Department of Justice (DoJ) clarify that these laws and their requirements explicitly apply to higher education, and specifically in regard to digital content and software, setting a deadline of April 2026 (extended by a year, just before this deadline). And the *European Accessibility Act* (EAA), first proposed in 2011, adopted in 2022, and effective June 28, 2025, mobilized EU member

¹<https://www.dol.gov/agencies/oasam/centers-offices/civil-rights-center/statutes/section-504-rehabilitation-act-of-1973>

²<https://www.ada.gov/pubs/ada.htm>

countries to address accessibility problems in built environment and digital content. This political momentum and legal mandate has led to a wave of efforts to address accessibility gaps in education, including efforts in CS education to identify new practices to scale accessible CS teaching [14] and to train faculty [3].

Unfortunately, responding to these laws is not simply a matter of fixing digital content and using more accessible tools. At a SIGCSE 2026 Technical Symposium special session on this topic, it became clear that most colleges and universities had done little to strategically plan, to train faculty and staff, or to mobilize a generational shift in CS pedagogy. Rather, faculty at the session had numerous questions about what accessibility efforts would be required, who would enforce them, whether they applied to private institutions, and how they should change their teaching. Other similar discussions have also raised questions about how this new labor would be compensated and supported institutionally. For example, consider a (relatively trivial) remediation case – adding alternative text (ALT text) to images in slide decks. Modestly assuming a class that has one image per slide deck of 30 slides, meeting 3x a week for a 15 week semester, assuming the writing ALT text takes 5 minutes per image, this translates to 112 hours of time, which is equivalent to an extra 7.5 hours a week of work for the entire semester per course taught. This does not account for the fact that instructors may need to learn how to write *good* ALT text, an area of active research in science communication [9–11, 13, 16, 18, 19, 22, 24, 25]). The question of where this time comes from, and who provides the labor, is nontrivial, especially at scale.

These questions reveal a fundamental administrative gap in crafting clear policy, guidance, and support, and managing the complexities that arise when applying that guidance to a specific discipline, such as CS. Many institutions have shared guidance, and one recent work has analyzed this guidance [6], finding that those that have published guidance have high readiness, but no prior work has examined the complexities of implementing guidance, either in general, or from the lens of computing and information disciplines.

In this report, we share our experiences navigating these administrative gaps. Our case is informative, as our institution responded rapidly after the April 2024 DoJ ruling, setting up committees, defining responsibilities, and mobilizing supports. Our two academic units, focused on CS and Information Science, were also campus leaders, often ahead of central administration and other departments. We describe our administrative, advocacy, and community roles in supporting and critiquing these efforts, in the hopes that faculty at other institutions in a position to do the same have a more robust framework for navigating administrative gaps in realizing accessible post-secondary computing education.

2 Institutional context

Our case concerned the University of Washington, a large public research university in Seattle, Washington. The university has several accessibility commitments that go beyond federally mandated student disability services, an ADA coordinator in civil rights compliance, a central accessibility technology services team, strong accessibility riders in vendor license agreements, a strong and diverse accessibility and disability research community, a disability studies department, a rehabilitation medicine department, and several

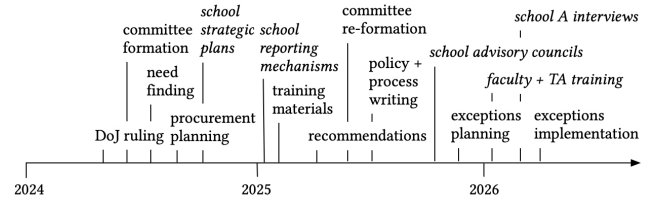


Figure 1: Institution and school activities (in *italics*) during the 2-year planning and implementation period.

grant-funded accessibility teaching, service, and outreach activities. Although the scope of the rule, which includes all government services, is all university services, our report focuses on the 2-years educational work portrayed in Figure 1.

We each held unique positionalities. The **1st** author was senior faculty and an academic administrative leader with research experience in accessible computing education. She was responsible for implementing the response to the DoJ ruling in the Information School, and joined several university committees on new policy and process. She does not yet identify as a person with disabilities. The **2nd** author was a disabled senior faculty member in Computer Science & Engineering and accessible computing research expert who oversees CREATE, a research center focused on accessibility. They sent the initial email advocating for an institutional response to the DoJ rule and was involved in multiple committees, as a leader for one and a member in others. The **3rd** author is a Computer Science & Engineering undergraduate engaged in understanding student access needs. She conducted interviews with educators about their experiences. She identifies as having a disability and utilizes university disability accommodations. The **4th** author is mid-career teaching faculty in Computer Science & Engineering with research experience in accessible computing education. He supports the 5th author’s academic unit response with an emphasis on workflows for educators to prepare accessible PDFs from $\text{\LaTeX}$ or handwritten notes. He advised the 3rd author on their interviews. He does not yet identify as a person with disabilities. The **5th** author is junior teaching faculty in Computer Science & Engineering with research experience in accessible computing education. He was charged with supporting his academic unit’s response, focusing on computing educators. He collaborates closely with his unit’s Information Technology (IT) department and works alongside central university accessibility stakeholders. He has prior professional experience with web accessibility and open-source software. He does not yet identify as a person with disabilities.

2.1 Administrative actions

The university spent about a year analyzing the rule and its implications across the broad, complex campus. It convened several committees, including academic course content, procurement, medicine, web content and mobile apps, and an innovation team for identifying and bridging gaps. Because of the risks involved in not addressing accessibility, implementation was reported all the way up through the university Regents, and university risk services played an important role in decision making.

In year 1, the university conducted investigations into academic needs, including subgroups exploring PDF accessibility, audio/video accessibility, digital course content, image accessibility, student disability support services, Canvas, e-textbooks, campus instructional support units, and edge cases. It intended to uncover barriers and opportunities to streamline support given the more universal need for digital access imposed by the new rule. For example, the Provost's office interviewed faculty about hard problems, identified support needs, and communicated to academic units about faculty actions. Other committees interviewed DRS and associated stakeholders, or collected data on the number of PDFs needing remediation across campus. It also convened committees on topics more general than course content, the most relevant being procurement. Procurement explored raising accessibility requirements at scale with paid learning technology vendors, using contract re-negotiations as leverage to demand compliance. This process led to a series of reports and recommendations, including tools to purchase, services to bolster or start, guidance to write, needs for self-service teaching and learning guidance for faculty, and accessibility technical support help request triage.

In year 2, the university prioritized implementation. It convened four teams: long-term sustainability, short-term remediation, change management (for communicating with the broader campus), and course content implementation. It also passed a new accessibility policy requiring the entire university to follow an internal digital accessibility standard based on the Web Content Accessibility Guidelines (WCAG 2.2). The policy was university-wide and assigned implementation responsibilities across the university, including to risk services, finance planning and budget, the Provost's office, individual unit leaders, advancement, the medical school, and the university IT unit.

Other year 2 outcomes included developing an exception processes for procurement and academic content, both managed by committees under the campus ADA office. This was necessary because some accessibility problems were not easily solvable (e.g., making complex data visualizations and interactive diagrams screen readable). We also found that earning technologies specific to computing and information, including auto-graders and homegrown tools, were broadly inaccessible. The exceptions review panel considered fixed timelines of exceptions to give instructors and academic units more time to find accessible tools and forms. Many exceptions were well known gaps that are active areas of research, and exceptions made that ongoing research visible administratively, justifying short-term exceptions to compliance.

Finally, because of the expertise already in IT, and because digital accessibility was critical to implementing the policy, university IT was assigned to help with multiple aspects of compliance. IT already handled procurement, a significant portion of the necessary work. It also had proximity to many university compliance, procurement, and licensing activities, and staff with accessibility assessment skills. One access technologies team had been responsible for significant aspects of content remediation for years prior to the ruling. Another student technologies team also held significant responsibility for Canvas, the campus LMS. Finally, it housed a newly hired instructional technology specialist, who had played a critical role in collecting resources, holding office hours, and educating faculty on accessible teaching and learning.

2.2 Structural challenges

One challenge was defining what would count as compliance and how that differed from meeting students' access needs more broadly. Some on the policy committee advocated for a higher bar than the DoJ-mandated WCAG 2.1. Others viewed WCAG 2.1 as too high, given how infeasible automated verification is for many requirements. In the end, WCAG 2.2 was used, enhancing keyboard focus, drag and drop, and authentication access. Others wanted a simple metric from an accessibility checker in Canvas, despite the risks of those metrics overlooking major access issues, exposing the university to lawsuit and negotiating student needs. It was not clear who would decide; some vague messages came from IT and others from the Provost's office, even though the 1st author's sustainability committee was technically charged with setting policy. Ultimately, campus set an 80% threshold on an HTML Canvas checker, supported by the 3rd-party DubBot website accessibility checker and TidyUP tool for removing unused files.

Another constraint was budget. Throughout, it was clear that some units — particularly our units — had existing staff support and faculty expertise, but the majority of units did not. It was also clear that while much of the policy charged faculty instructors with accessibility work, most faculty lacked sufficient knowledge, central teaching supports would not be enough to train at scale, and with budget cuts looming, there would be few resources for hiring staff support. The unfunded nature of the mandate meant that the university had to self-fund change, which meant most limited central funds went to broad baseline support (e.g., tool acquisition, central staffing), rather than the more challenging edge cases.

Communication was another challenge. Faculty and leadership repeatedly shared that they were unaware of the status of campus efforts, the specific work they needed to do, and/or the resources available to them. Many faculty were also concerned that the resources provided were insufficient, that policy was ambiguous, and that central updates were poorly communicated. To address this, faculty-facing communications were split from IT-led communications and embedded on the Provost's office, where they developed monthly toolkits during year 2, distributed to academic leaders via email, intended to help leaders help their faculty comply. Much of the toolkit content materialized as practical guidance posted online by the university's teaching and learning center; this became the ground truth resource for many faculty, as email was ephemeral.

Timing was also challenging. The exceptions process did not become active or communicated until just prior to the April 2026 deadline, around the time the deadline was extended. Beforehand, many faculty were left uncertain about whether and when they would need to comply, especially computing faculty who wanted guidance on challenging areas like computer graphics, video games, and interactive data visualization.

Despite these challenges, by April 2026, most policies were defined, approved, documented, and communicated, positioning campus to learn and refine them. The committees also had less formal impacts: a year 1 committee developed a rich set of personas for guiding staff and faculty training on accessibility needs and an emergent network of faculty and staff advocates across the committees often helped resist or redirect counterproductive central decisions. That network led to other innovations in academic units.

3 School-level efforts

As the central efforts played out, our two separate academic units for information science (school A) and computer science (school B) attempted to respond to emerging policies and practices, at the scale of more than 700 courses and 3,000 students annually. We describe our efforts to build capacity and policy, prepare instructors and TAs, and addressing emergent technical challenge.

3.1 Capacity, responsibility, and process

The campus-level administrative efforts left many gaps at the school level. One was responsibility: who would do the work, among faculty, staff, and student support, and how would they be held accountable? School A revised its teaching and learning staff job descriptions to include accessibility training and triage. It also revised its annual peer teaching evaluations and merit review processes to account for failures to address content accessibility, ensuring data from staff efforts to track accessibility reached faculty merit review.

School B hired a TA to improve accessibility in a data science course a year before the DoJ rule was published, and worked to document those efforts.³ It also hired a different TA whose sole job was supporting accessibility efforts in the introductory computing course sequence; they audited and remediated course materials, collaborated on training, and built novel infrastructure (which later led to a research collaboration on scaling accessibility efforts [14]). School B supported these efforts through service assignments to free up faculty time.

Both schools also identified a need for anonymous reporting of accessibility problems. School A created a reporting mechanism embedded in the course learning management systems, and encouraged students at the start of each term to report any accessibility issues they found. School B added accessibility reporting to the school-wide anonymous feedback form used for various cultural and interpersonal concerns, and added accessibility reporting links to school-supported website templates.

Beyond reporting, both schools wanted to be in dialog with students with disabilities about their broader accessibility needs, fearing the digital content focus of the DoJ ruling would draw attention away from the other access needs faced by individual schools and departments. To counteract this, School A started a “student accessibility council,” inviting 40+ self-nominated students to collaborate with the 1st author in her administrative role to identify and act upon overlooked needs. The 3rd author initiated a similar effort in School B with students, staff, faculty, and post docs. A 3rd committee was formed by School B and led by the last author, focused specifically on remediating digital course content and training computing instructors and student teaching assistants.

3.2 Faculty and TA professional development

School A and B had several distinct efforts to build faculty capacity for content accessibility. One was content audits: School A teaching and learning staff reviewed detectable accessibility issues and then coordinated with faculty on them. This often led to informal training and learning. School B also audited course content with a combination of central campus and homegrown tools, but delegated audit reviews to faculty, supported by informal faculty-led training.

³<https://create.uw.edu/a11y-in-action/accessible-courses/>

Another effort was holding accessibility professional learning workshops in mandatory faculty meetings (School A, approximately 70 faculty per session) and informal faculty lunches (School B; approximately 30 faculty per session). These included foundational concepts of disability and accessibility, key skills for web, document, and PDF content accessibility in WCAG, and in the case of School A numerous aspects of ableism built into faculty norms around lectures, meetings, pedagogy, and assessment. When receiving training, both School A and School B faculty reacted at times with support and recognition, and at times with resistance.

In addition, the 4th and 5th authors offered “computing accessibility office hours,” initially to faculty, instructors, and TAs within School B, and later opened to the broader campus. The goal was to provide computing-specific advice on challenges not addressed by central campus resources. Roughly 10 different instructors and TAs across campus attended these hours, with a few additional School B instructors requesting an informal consultation instead. Specific questions included producing accessible homework for a discrete mathematics course (with particular challenges around highlighting solutions and embedding diagrams), accessible Jupyter notebook design, and accessible alternatives for data-intensive diagrams.

In School B, the 5th author created new accessibility modules for existing TA trainings. School B had two tracks: a required, quarter-long curriculum for TAs in the introductory computing sequence, and an optional, condensed curriculum for TAs in other courses; new modules were added to both. These trainings blended direct instruction and hands-on activities, covered accessible teaching strategies, university accessibility resources, and computing-specific challenges (e.g., writing ALT text for data structure diagrams). Approximately 150 introductory programming TAs and 90 TAs for other courses took these trainings in the 2 years.

3.3 Emergent technical challenges

In preparing, both schools found numerous technical challenges with making computing and information course content accessible.

First, many of the automated accessibility checkers emitted false positives or were otherwise confusing and therefore were ignored by faculty (e.g. reading order in slide decks). Checkers also emitted many false negatives on HTML and CSS, such as most color contrast checkers (which fail against gradients, image backgrounds, and content within CSS before/after pseudo-elements). Faculty experiences with generative AI tools for detecting and fixing content issues also suggested many false positives and negatives. This meant that the baseline support for detection — and the defined metric by which progress was judged — was unreliable.

Other problems stemmed from the schools’ use of non-standard learning technologies. For example, School B faculty often used significantly different tools for slide creation and content sharing than most of campus, requiring several school-specific solutions, including course website prototypes and strategies for creating accessible HTML and slide decks from text specifications. Similarly, most of School B’s materials were self-hosted on instructor-managed websites rather than Canvas, so instructors would not receive feedback from the central LMS checker. The separate campus-wide automated website audit tool did not initially include School B’s content, and was not designed for course websites (e.g., that they

change ownership and design term-by-term). As a result, School B maintained a custom version so instructors would still receive automated feedback, and changed settings to better match the hierarchy of instructors and TAs. School B provided supplemental guidance for items not covered by the tool, such as PDFs and slide decks, prior to central support for these other content formats.

Both schools built school-level accessibility auditing at scale. For example, School B surveyed approximately 300 course websites used in the 2024–2025 academic year to identify common mistakes. The 5th author and School B’s IT group then led an effort to update existing course website templates (and create new ones) that aimed to meet WCAG 2.2 “by default,” targeting design patterns where they noticed consistent mistakes (primarily navigation bars, course calendars, and color contrast issues). In 2025–2026, a majority of School B instructors adopted one of these templates or otherwise remediated their websites, but a sizable minority did not make any accessibility-focused updates.

Another large challenge was producing screen reader-accessible math. In School B, most typeset math was authored in LaTeX and distributed via self-hosted websites, while most campus guidance focused on authoring math in Canvas or Microsoft Word. Thus, School B provided separate guidance for TeX authors: either generating accessible tagged PDFs (which has major technical limitations), or shifting assignments to be “web-first” (by compiling to web outputs or using web-based TeX engines that support MathML, such as MathJax or KaTeX). However, this was insufficient for math embedded in complex slides, or materials that relied on bespoke LaTeX packages — which were particularly common in discrete mathematics, algorithms, and theoretical computer science courses.

Separately, many instructors in both schools created handwritten math notes, either live in-lecture or as supplements. Many contained complex diagrams, non-linear reading structure, and implicit semantics of color that made off-the-shelf OCR tools insufficient. The quantity of notes (often multiple pages per lecture, 20–30 lectures per term) meant manual typesetting would be hard to scale. This suggested a hybrid approach; within School B, the 4th author tested campus-recommended tools and other state-of-the-art OCR and VLM pipelines, and provided direct guidance to faculty. This also started a broader campus-level discussion on accessible handwritten math that remains unresolved.

Many technical problems were not solvable with content or engineering work, as they represented open research problems. Programming languages were broadly inaccessible, as were their tools, platforms, and documentation, and that remains an area of active research [15]. Others were tractable, and led to research contributions. For example, data structure diagrams are challenging targets for ALT text and image descriptions, particularly when students interact with the computational properties of the structure itself (such as evaluating if a binary tree satisfies the binary search tree property). This led to new research exploring how diagram specification languages, augmented with multiple accessible “views” into a data structure (including screen reader-navigable and tactile), can improve diagram accessibility [30] [29]. Another project in School B specifically aimed to make CAD accessible to Blind and DeafBlind individuals, overcoming a procurement barrier likely to lead to an exception (since no commercial CAD software is accessible, and the best way to improve this is still unknown).

4 Evaluation

To assess our schools’ progress and other remaining institutional gaps, we engaged in many formal and informal evaluations.

4.1 Accessibility reporting

Over a year, School A and B received only a few reports, including one about classroom temperature and one about externally linked video without transcripts. We suspect, partly based on School A’s discussions with its student accessibility council, that the low engagement reflected multiple factors: 1) Faculty had already done immense work to make course content accessible, 2) students’ needs mostly did not concern content, and 3) when they did have real content needs, many felt asking for accommodations was unreasonable, knowing how much work the edge cases would require.

4.2 Educator interviews

The 3rd author conducted an IRB-approved interview study with 8 interested instructors and TAs in School B, recruited via mailing list, to understand their motivations, resources, and imperatives toward making courses more accessible.

Although the DoJ rule provided extrinsic motivation, several instructors felt intrinsically motivated by caring for their students: those using accommodations shaped their pedagogy to include accessibility going forward. In School B, a culture of positive peer influence and support around digital accessibility was emphasized across research, informational meetings, and office hours. Some reported fear of being personally held liable for inaccessible materials, and uncertainty about how far the university would support them if their best efforts were imperfect.

Instructors highlighted two themes. First, they could explain digital accessibility but struggled to put it into practice, often due to uncertainty around process. For some, this gulf stemmed from limited experience with accessibility concepts and checking tools; they lacked confidence in whether the tools were sufficient or were unsure how to fix flagged errors. Others, with accessibility research experience, struggled with ambiguity over what the university considered compliant. They noticed problems beyond what tools flagged and questioned if their efforts matched the compliance bar. Instructors cited computing-specific content, such as tree diagrams, flowcharts, and code screenshots, as the hardest to remediate. In some cases, course platforms did not provide accessibility guidance or affordances; in others, effective practices for making diagrams accessible were not available [29].

Separately, instructors struggled to apply universal design principles before encountering specific accommodation requests, due to lack of time and difficulty remediating existing resources. This was especially challenging for those inheriting course materials. A university instructional accessibility specialist observed that faculty often arrived at consultations not resistant to the work but simply overwhelmed. She described this as “task paralysis,” where faculty become so overwhelmed by the most difficult remediation tasks that they overlook smaller, higher-impact changes well within reach, such as color contrast and multiple formats for content.

Instructors also feared that, despite their best efforts, gaps in their understanding could leave them personally liable if their materials fell short. An instructor noted:

“What is a reasonable amount of effort to be requested of me versus to be expected of a more centralized supporter?”

At the TA level, the picture was more varied, with familiarity ranging considerably by role, course context, and experience. In a survey preceding the interview, a TA noted:

“For me personally, the most challenging thing is that I just don’t know what a digitally accessible course is supposed to look like.”

Several other TAs called for better integration of guidance into existing workflows. Returning TAs noted that training existed for new TAs, but no equivalent was offered to those already in the role. These interviews mirrored anonymous feedback about TA trainings, where TAs gave uniformly positive feedback but desired more, especially for domain-specific tasks. Instructors observed a strong increase in TA capacity for accessibility work. However, instructors in other courses saw more mixed results, partly due to the optional nature of the training, and partly because different courses had vastly different accessibility challenges.

4.3 Student advocacy

Both schools’ advocacy committees surfaced numerous gaps in the university and schools’ efforts. For example, they noted that meetings of all kinds (classes, student services, career services, student groups) were broadly inaccessible, with issues related to A/V, content, pacing, sensation, and more. Both committees felt it important to create an accessible meeting checklist for online and collocated meetings, and integrate it into school culture.

Students in School A noted that the automated checks campus and School A had adopted considered only static content, not video, audio, eBooks, or embedded or linked documents, and they wanted the School A committee to investigate ways of detecting missing captions, transcripts, and inaccessible eBook formats.

Students noted there was no central resource for classroom accessibility for different access needs, meaning students had to make dedicated trips before the term to note problems and submit them to our office of Disability Resources for Students (DRS), so DRS could request a classroom change. They wanted a central database of classroom access metadata so they could notify DRS of issues as soon as rooms were posted. It turned out DRS also needed this data, our classroom services didn’t have it, and so campus had no way to be aware of, let alone resolve, access problems.

Both committees noted the need for faculty professional development on access needs. Both schools developed TA and faculty digital content training. School A also noted the importance not just of training on digital content, but of interactions between accessibility, neurodiversity, and pedagogy. School A co-developed an extended training to discuss ableism in the school’s culture and norms through assignment due dates, participation grades, group work, and inflexibility.

Students in School B found repeated technical challenges with specific campus-provided accessibility technology, such as buggy text-to-speech software. This meant that while some materials may have been accessible in principle, they were not accessible to these students in practice. Some students also found it challenging to learn specific accessibility technologies, such as more advanced screen reader usage.

5 Reflections

Our institution and schools’ accessibility work is far from complete. Making post-secondary learning accessible is an ongoing project, and the CS and information science work in that is just part of the broader disability justice work. To focus that work, we end with a few observations about the open problems we see, and how our first two years might inform the next decade.

First, faculty and TA training continues to be an open challenge. Faculty motivated to learn are engaging and learning, but finding times, places, and contexts is challenging, as faculty learning about teaching is rarely built into their work. Faculty *not* motivated to learn are a different challenge, closely tied to faculty fatigue. And then there are our schools’ hundreds of “adjunct” instructors: not only do they have no time built in to learn (as they often have full-time jobs), they also have little incentive or capacity to create lasting accessible materials for others. This points to the longstanding structural gap in the capacity of higher education to transform teaching [26]. And all of this contrasts with the consistently deep engagement by undergraduate teaching assistants, who have been eager, engaged, and passionate about transforming their teaching.

Another challenge will be unintended consequences of both the DoJ ruling and our institution’s policies derived from it. For example, some faculty are so concerned about litigation, compliance, and effort that they have threatened to pull materials altogether, at the expense of all student experiences. The exception policy created on campus has not (yet) quelled those fears; negotiating when, how, and how much faculty are made to make content accessible will be a key factor shaping teaching quality on campus.

We are also concerned about reliance on automated accessibility testing, the campus’ ability to move from 80% to true compliance, and the belief that generative AI will correct content problems. Our experiences did not support these beliefs, and we have observed many faculty and staff overfitting to these tests and delegating fixes to generative AI without evaluation.

We expect that many of the long term ways to address these challenges will be infrastructure. That might be more universal platforms for generating accessible web materials, more robust screen reader technologies, more widespread implementation of PDF/UA-2, and more accessible programming languages, development environments, tools and toolkits. Some of our work will be to support and test these global efforts; others may be local efforts tied to the specific university and school systems we maintain for teaching. And some might be infrastructure for content curation, especially of complex content (e.g. intricate diagrams). Much of this will be engineering work, but much will be research as well.

Across this work, our experiences have taught us that the central challenges will continue to be communication, culture change, and learning. These are the factors that produced the inaccessible institutions and learning spaces in the first place [1, 5, 20, 21, 23]. We hope this chronicle of institutional change efforts provides a glimpse into the similar work that should happen globally, so that we can fully welcome all students into computing education.

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