Collaborative Teaching of Second Language Writing:
Using Elements from Writing Across the Curriculum Pedagogy

Carrie Breyer Camargo

Indiana University of Pennsylvania
Abstract

The steadily increasing number of English Language Learners (ELLs) enrolling in the K-12 and university domains is creating a need for instructional strategy and change. English as a Second Language and content-area teachers need to collaborate and share strategies for the writing instruction of this new population. Writing and content-specific strategies like, Writing-Across-the-Curriculum (WAC) could make a strong contribution to the area of writing. ESL and content-area teachers can offer insight into their different areas and create a collaborative planning and co-teaching situation that benefits all students who need language instruction. Using writing as a tool for language and content-area learning during co-taught classes encompasses many necessary skills that students need to succeed academically.
Introduction

Rapidly growing numbers of second language (L2) writers face challenges in gaining the specific language they need to participate in academic discourse and writing across the US educational system. Clearly, these demographic changes mean that institutional procedures, strategies, and routines also need to change to meet the needs of a new population. A revision of what it means to teach is often required of teachers to educate students in a changing world (Brancard & Quinwilliams, 2012). Currently, many of these new students are English language learners (ELLs) who face the challenge of learning a new language as they learn academic concepts and content, and how to write in that new language.

Content-area or discipline specific vocabulary and instruction provide an opportunity ELLs to gain language proficiency and enter the academic world of their native English speaking (NES) peers. To facilitate this, educators need to utilize writing as a tool for teaching, learning, and communicating with these students. Panofsky, Pacheo, Smith, Santos, Fogelman, Harrington & Kenney (2005) note an absence of research on writing instruction for ELLs in U.S. schools and found that there is a need for more direct writing instruction. They also found that instructional support in oral-language development and structural, skill-based writing instruction in their general education classes is also lacking.

Content-area or discipline specific teachers have knowledge and experience of their areas of specialization just as ESL teachers have the knowledge of the L2 learning process and related instructional strategies. Together, they may hold the key to advancing the skills of our multilingual writers through collaboration and co-teaching through the medium of writing. Honigsfeld and Dove (2010) support the idea that co-teaching can be accomplished through a
variety of approaches and contexts. ELLs can be well served when co-teachers take an initiative to communicate about curriculum and generate writing lessons through collaboration.

Professionals also need to collaborate across all levels of the educational system to share Writing-across-the curriculum (WAC) strategies and elements, which specifically focus on teaching second language writers (Zawacki & Rogers, 2012). I propose that primary and secondary schools can benefit a great deal from borrowing strategies from higher education initiatives, such as WAC, just as higher education could benefit from the cross-discipline models used in many K-12 schools. In either case, educators of our multilingual writers must believe that writing assists in language and academic learning and be willing to adapt to the changing needs of our students and collaborate (Herrington, 1981). These collaborations can take place in the physical classroom, through curriculum mapping and co-planning, or in more virtual environments.

As this paper will demonstrate, focusing on elements of WAC in combination with collaborative teaching, L2 writing instruction can be tailored to meet language development needs and enhance writing proficiency for ELLs. Key elements of WAC such as “writing-to-learn” and “writing-to-communicate”, coupled with collaborative teaching between the content-area teacher and the ESL teacher are applicable to educators from almost every level and academic discipline in education. The WAC approach has been more closely connected to the demands of the university-level academic writing but there are also some studies of K-12 schooling and schools as sites of disciplinary learning (Bazerman, 2005). With climbing academic demands and high-stakes testing affecting the K-12 domain, there is a need for efficient academic strategies that increase student performance in content-area learning and writing for all students and especially for our ELLs.
All educators that work with ELLs need to learn how to better address the needs of these students. Becoming familiar with the L2 learning process, collaborating with other content-areas or disciplines, and exploring new teaching strategies should assist in more reflective teaching. It involves carefully thinking through the expectations, values, and assumptions underlying the work we assign (Zamel, 1995, p. 257). Planning reflectively for instruction benefits all educators and the students they serve. This paper will offer researched insight and suggestions for advancing the content knowledge, academic vocabulary, and writing proficiency of L2 students through the many stages of their education, and offer an insight into cross-curricular collaboration for all who educate them. This paper can benefit the fields of English as a Second Language (ESL), WAC, and educators of ELLs in primary, secondary, and higher-education.

**Literature Review**

**Rationale for Collaborative Teaching**

**How co-teaching can help address the needs of English Language Learners**

Content-area and discipline specific educators may know that they may need to do more to help the ELLs in their classes to access content, but they may not have the knowledge or courage to apply new strategies on their own. Currently, most K-12 English as a Second Language (ESL) teachers are encouraged to co-plan or co-teach with mainstream teachers in order to support the growing number of ELLs in the general education classrooms (Bell & Baecher, 2012). The partnering of these professionals can open up a beneficial dialogue and help content-area teachers see L2 teaching strategies modeled within their own classrooms. In turn, ESL teachers reap the benefit of learning the content-area information and academic expectations required of ELLs in the mainstream.
Communication between educators that teach the same student population is not a new idea. In a 2006 report by August and Shanahan, they mention the importance of quality instruction, and that it can only be accomplished with the collaborative effort of instructional experts: the classroom teacher who has the command of the academic content and the ESL specialist who understands the complexities of second language acquisition. They go on to explain that it requires both educators to step outside of their particular domain to benefit the L2 student (2006).

Many educators retain focus solely on their content-area or specific discipline without much meaningful contact or constructive connection with other professionals in their institutions. They accept charge for the conveyance of their own subject matter and place the responsibility of L2 education with the ESL teacher. Zamel (1995) posits that “as long as these boundaries continue to delineate and separate what we and other faculty do, as long as we {ESL specialists} are expected to “fix” students’ problems, then misunderstandings, unfulfilled expectations, frustration, and even resentment will continue to mark our experiences” (p. 255).

When teachers engage in collaborative practices, they experience less isolation, have more opportunities to share strategies, and shape the way ESL programs operate in their schools (Honigsfeld & Dove, 2010). Teacher collaboration to meet student needs was thoroughly examined addressed by Friend (2008) who developed and contributed to many resources for the co-teaching of special education students in the K-12 domain. She states that, “co-teaching in a professional classroom provides professionals with a sense of support, that is, the knowledge that ensuring students reach their educational goals is not a responsibility that has to be undertaken in isolation” (p. 2). It is important that the daunting task of bringing our ELLs to academic and language proficiency is not seen as only ESL educator’s responsibility.
Honigsfeld and Dove (2010), two scholars who have made a significant contribution to the ongoing discussion of content-area and ESL teacher collaboration, describe the shared responsibility of identifying individual teacher roles as: an agreement on the decision-making process for instruction, student behavior, communication with students, and mutual assessment of student progress. The authors explain that collaboration, which consists co-planning, and co-teaching, is a time-consuming undertaking, but the distributing responsibility and labor benefits everyone involved (2010). They conclude the following about collaboration:

“When teachers successfully share their skills of delivering a lesson, or meet the challenges and enjoy the rewards of helping a new generation of ELLs, their students become integrated into the fabric of the classroom, the school community, and ultimately, into the larger society of the United States.” (2010, p.91)

These scholars clearly demonstrate how teacher collaboration to assist our ELLs in learning academic content and in developing writing proficiency is a worthwhile investment in their futures.

**Academic Demands of L2 Writers and Standardized Assessments**

Academic language is the type of language needed to achieve in the classroom regarding content instruction, assignments, standardized tests, and above all writing. Teacher collaboration to support such language development is vital to ELL’s academic success (Honigsfeld & Dove, 2010). Academic language must be woven into the co-planning of lessons and delivered through content instruction by the co-teachers. While language objectives can be written by the ESL teacher to address the academic content and to anticipate difficult vocabulary, the content-area teacher can provide information about the content and the academic language that will be included in the lesson. Both general academic language development and an understanding of, the the specific content vocabulary are needed for ELL students to be successful. (Brown, 2007).
To help accomplish both these goals students can be taught to engage in academic discussion using visual aids or both languages. These kinds of scaffolding strategies facilitate students’ production of academic language and their comprehension of concepts which, in turn, will also contribute towards higher proficiency on standardized tests.

In this era of high-stakes testing in the K-12 domain, collaboration between the content-area and ESL teacher using a standardized curriculum helps to ensure consistency across instruction. Also, in light of No Child Left Behind (NCLB) reforms all students are expected to achieve at the same high level. Therefore teachers must design content-area instruction with ELLs in mind as well as maintain high expectations this population (Honigsfeld & Dove, 2010). Strategies for content-area ELL instruction will remain in the spotlight because NCLB requires disaggregated subgroup data for ELLs’ test scores and performance on standardized tests. Their success or failure in meeting state benchmarks is important to administrators at the school, district, and state levels leaving ESL and content-area teachers are are left with the daunting task of bringing ELLs to grade-level academic and language proficiency quite rapidly. Honigsfeld and Dove (2010) question the effects of a higher emphasis on test preparation of ELL’s overall academic development:

“Test preparation in turn leaves less room for instruction that requires students to use critical thinking and higher-order reasoning skills and strategies. What does this practice mean for English language learners? What is being eliminated from the curriculum in order to develop their test-taking ability?” (p. 27)

As they point out, the costs of substituting more sophisticated and (vital) academic skill development for test-taking preparation may be much higher for ELLs and teachers must recognize these higher costs and find ways of addressing them.

While restrictive in some ways, a standardized curriculum can also support collaborative teaching and planning between ESL and mainstream teachers in significant ways. Without a
common curriculum it can be a challenge for teachers to determine common goals and to know where to start collaboration (Beltran & Peercy, 2012). A draft towards creating a consistent English Language Arts framework across the U.S. to prepare students for college and the workforce was released in September 2009.¹ This effort is called the Common Core State Standards Initiative: Preparing America’s Students For College & Career and its implementation requires K-12 schools to establish statewide/district-wide goals and shared responsibility for curriculum and instruction to successfully reach all learners, including ELLs (TESOL, 2010, p. 314). The standards require that students will gain proficiency in language through conversations, vocabulary, direct instruction and reading in one-on-one, small group, and whole-class settings. In order to meet these standards, collaborative teaching methods that focus on developing writing skills are critical for ELLs.

**ESL Teacher and Content Area Teacher Roles in Teaching Second Language Writing**

In general, ESL standards are not neatly tied to the mainstream curriculum, and it is mostly the ESL teachers’ responsibility to find the connections in order to meet the needs of ELLs. Because content teachers and ESL teachers may occupy different positions of power in their schools, the may lack common technical language for lesson design and they may differ in instructional goals, their collaborations may be particularly challenging to implement (Bell & Baecher, 2012). Also, due to a general lack of communication between ESL specialists and mainstream educators, many mainstream teachers are not aware of important ESL issues such as recent modifications to the ESL curriculum (Beltran & Peercy, 2012). Many ESL teachers thus use the pull-out model instead of collaborative or co-teaching and do not always know how their

¹ Information retrieved from: [www.corestandards.org](http://www.corestandards.org)
own instructional goals related to their counterpart teacher’s goals. Collaborative teaching allows teachers from both areas to access one another’s strengths.

Teachers with content-area expertise are able to offer their knowledge of the subject matter, curricula, and local, state, and national content-related standards and assessments to others. Meanwhile, the ESL teachers have the opportunity to share their expertise in second language acquisition, cross-cultural understanding, bilingualism and biculturalism, and L2 literacy development (Honigsfeld & Dove, 2010). With the combined talents of both teachers, a collaborative professional relationship could bring positive results for the ELLs being taught by both of them. Or, as McLeod (2001) explains:

“The person who knows best how to initiate the newcomer is not the composition teacher, but the teacher who is already grounded in the content of the field and who is fluent in the disciplinary discourse - the history teacher, the biology teacher, the math teacher.” (p. 58)

Teaching language through content-area instruction and composition requires collaboration of teachers in their discipline specific areas. Collaboration can consist of two teachers, or an entire institution. In, “Cross-District Collaboration: Curriculum and Professional Development”, Short et al., (2012), a field study and task were coordinated and administered for two Rhode Island, urban school districts to jointly produce a content-based curriculum to meet the needs of ELLs for the general language arts curricula and state-mandated tests.

The cross-district professional development enacted by Pawtucket and Central Falls School districts produced a four-level, standards-based ESL curriculum for all ELLs, and a four-subject newcomer program for students with limited prior schooling. Many of the ELLs in these districts have a 2-year or greater gap in their educational backgrounds, with little to no literacy in
their first languages. These districts face a situation similar to many others in the U.S. with high enrollments of minority students from poverty-stricken neighborhoods.

The ESL directors in these Rhode Island districts collaborated with the content-area teachers to write content and language objectives by extracting essential information and activities from the curricula. The held joint sessions which helped the two districts share challenges and classroom commonalities. As a result, the ESL directors who were responsible for observations note a positive shift in classroom practice with ESL and content-area teachers. The product of this unique endeavor and collaboration was a curriculum from which many school districts could benefit from.

Creating an integrated curriculum and collaborative learning environment where ELLs can learn through content is ideal. Teaching isolated vocabulary or skills will not get them to language proficiency and it is not particularly helpful for students to know the content vocabulary and concepts unless they also have the language skills to write about these terms and concepts (Chanock, 2004). That is to say content-area language and academic skills need to be integrated into the writing curriculum for ELLs. Writing involves a range of cognitive functions because it retrieves creativity from the right side of the brain and linear processes from the left. Writing is an academic, and social, process that connects the acts of learning and writing (Emig, 1977) and therefore it is integral to comprehending and producing academic language. Content-area and ESL teachers have to collaborate in order to be prepared to simultaneously teach language and content through writing. Kroll (1990) explains that in order for content-area writing instruction for ELLs to be successful, teachers need an understanding of writing instruction and the related field, and then to transfer that understanding through the factors of using a second language. The content-area and ESL teacher are both education generalists and
specialists in their respective areas, and can share their expertise to address the specific needs of ELLs regarding writing development, and content-area language and skill development.

Models of Co-teaching that Complement Writing Instruction

K-12 Classroom Models

Beginning a K-12 co-teaching arrangement can occur in incremental implementation to determine the most efficient model for particular classrooms and student populations. For example, the process could begin with informal communication such as brief meetings before or after class hours, or via email, or other virtual spaces. Virtual meetings can assist school community members to move from a “your kids” to an “our kids” mentality (Honigsfeld & Dove, 2010, p.139) and to being cultivating a shared vision between the ESL teacher and colleagues.

Informal meetings play an important role in developing collaborative teaching, but actual collaborative activities that are informal are also infrequent, tend to be initiated by one educator (and therefore, aren’t wholly collaborative), and tend to only address short-term concerns. Extensive collaboration is more consistent and systematized through regular meetings, long-term planning, and daily interaction (Bell & Baecher, 2012). Meetings can be informal due to limited co-planning time, but the dedication of both teachers is important to the success and quality of the instruction. Some teaching teams prefer to use one co-teaching model consistently while others enjoy the using different co-teaching models at different times or on different days (Honigsfeld & Dove, 2010). Below are the descriptions of selected models of collaborative teaching from

• One Group: One Lead Teacher and One Teacher “Teaching on Purpose”:

In this model, the content-area teacher leads the whole class instruction and the ESL teacher circulates through the classroom during and after instruction to keep students on task and clarify questions. The ESL teacher may choose a section of the content or skill from the lesson that ELLs may have difficulty with and make adaptations by adding visuals, guides, or interject with alternate wording.

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• One Group: Two Teachers Teach the Same Content: Both the content-area and ESL teacher address the whole class in this side-by-side approach (Hongsfeld & Dove, 2010)

• Small Group: Re-teach: After instruction is lead by the content-area teacher, the ESL teacher re-teaches the core content material to a smaller group of ELLs within the same classroom (Friend, 2008).

• Parallel Teaching-Different Rooms: The ESL teacher covers the same content as the content-area teacher, but in the sheltered environment of a different room. This situation would require “pulling out” the ELLs from their mainstream classroom to administer direct instruction in a different room (Honigsfeld & Dove, 2010).
• **Alternative Teaching**: The content-area teacher addresses the content with a large group, and the ESL teacher teaches alternate information to a smaller group within the same classroom (Friend, 2008).

Teachers choose between these and other models for different instructional or situational reasons. For example, some opt for the Parallel Teaching model so that ELLs will not miss content or skills presented by the mainstream teacher during pull-out periods. In this model, ESL teachers introduce age- and grade-level appropriate content and skills to help front-load difficult vocabulary or concepts (Hongisfeld & Dove, 2010).

ELLs in content-based ESL classes acquire English because they are carefully taught the language used in content-area topics. This is because the academic language that English learners are taught come from areas like math, science, and social studies. A teacher facilitating content-based ESL instruction teaches content language related to the subject in context so that English learners comprehend the message as well as the language structure. English learners in content-based ESL instruction are also required to use their second language to complete oral and written tasks (Brown, 2007). As explained below using content-area language and topics in writing to enhance language proficiency and writing development has also been highlighted in higher education through Writing Across the Curriculum (WAC).

**Higher Education Strategies for Strengthening Second Language Writing**

Calls in higher education for student advancement in content vocabulary and writing proficiency have come during different periods in history and were related to specific changes in the sociopolitical climate and student populations. (Russell, 1990). The cross-curricular writing programs that emerged set out to fill in large academic gaps through language instruction and Writing-across-the-curriculum, or WAC was initiated across the country.
In today’s era of high-stakes testing, economic strife, and an unprecedented number of ELLs enrolling in K-12 schools and higher education institutions, WAC strategies and elements are needed more than ever at all levels of the educational system. Several strategies and elements of WAC, such as critical thinking, writing-to-learn, and writing-to-communicate, contribute to ELLs in the L2 writing process. Zamel (1995) explains “What first begins as a concern about ‘underprepared’ or ‘deficient’ ESL students often leads to a consideration of the same kinds of pedagogical issues that are at the heart of writing across the curriculum initiatives.” (p. 255) This suggests that along with shared concerns and issues, the actual strategies that best address English language development complement the best strategies for developing the language skills necessary for writing for all students.

A shared vision of developing language and writing proficiency for L2 students through collaborative teaching and WAC strategies demands a mutual responsibility for student learning. L2 writing instruction through this integrated and collaborative model develops the learning of content and the construction of writing. Along with recommending that L2 writing practice be “situated” in an authentic context of the classroom. Craig (2013) also explains that L2 writing needs necessary instruction, practice, feedback, sufficient amount of time to practice those skills with the support of a teacher. Through this model ELLs learn language through content writing without losing critical social and academic interaction with NES peers in the general education classroom. McLeod (2002) also supports the notion that when writing is about meaningful material in authentic contexts it can be translated into most educational contexts. It becomes clear that the many elements and strategies of WAC can be applied to L2 writing from the primary grades to the university level.

Elements of WAC for All L2 Writers
Helpful to all L2 writers, WAC encourages critical thinking, collaborative group work, the revision of writing through informal assessment and mentoring, and offers the concepts of “writing-to-learn” and “writing-to-communicate” (Craig, 2013). In Craig’s (2013) recent reflections on WAC, she explains that it offers a cohesive approach that links reflective function of writing to the student’s critical thinking process and then to the eventual communication act that creates and transmits knowledge.” (p. 18) Critical thinking can occur at multiple levels of language proficiency and the use of simplified, language components, for example (Honigsfeld & Dove, 2010) can contribute to more complex thought through “writing-to-learn” activities in the beginning stages of language proficiency.

**Writing-to-learn**

Writing-to-learn sequentially engages writers in the writing process, leading them towards a more detailed piece of writing. It supports and develops, the reflective and expressive processes through which L2 students can first reflect, and then become ready to write (Craig, 2013). These activities can be a “quick-write” that can be done on index cards, computers or white boards: or they can be a list or a preview of vocabulary. Writing-to-learn strategies were articulated by Britton and his colleagues at the beginning of the WAC movement (McLeod & Maimon, 2000) and continue to be important facets of the movement. Language development through writing can start at the most basic levels of language proficiency and education by using this element of WAC.
The writing-to-learn approach assumes that students have something to say and that the process of writing gives them an immediate way to discover and communicate it (Herrington, 1981). We know that this WAC element positively impacts the L2 writer’s achievement and confidence because writing has been shown to support “subject area learning and thinking” (Bazerman, 2005, p. 38). In this approach, the L2 writer is typically given the opportunity to connect to content-area language and critical thinking through informal, authentic writing tasks.

Writing-to-learn activities can be viewed as either a way to learn content, preparation for more discipline specific writing, or as the two combined (LeCourt, 1996). In any configuration, these cognitive and process-based activities aide in reinforcing the ways of thinking (year). An L2 writer has the opportunity to learn language through the content assigned to these activities and also benefits from the thinking process involved. The WAC “writing-to-learn” strategy eases L2 writers into content-area writing and critical thinking that prepares them for higher-order writing and communication such as its counterpart element, writing-to-communicate.

**Writing-to-communicate**

WAC’s concept of “writing to communicate” guides the students through the stages of oral presentation while developing writing skills. The process includes with critical thinking, invention, drafting, planning, preparation, and practice - activities that draw on a range of oral communication and writing skills. The oral presentation and strategic use of visual supports is the final stage of the activity (Craig, 2013). Focus is on writing to an audience in order to inform. For this reason, the writing is revised before it is presented. The particular content-area or discipline specific language is used.

August and Shanahan (2006) discuss how writing skills are closely related to oral-language. Through writing-to-communicate activities oral language is linked to the revised
writing that is used in the presentation. Linking oral to written work takes time, but critical thinking is deepened by working extensively with the material. Two modes of communication can be accomplished with the same research. All processes and preparation for an oral presentation mirror writing (Craig, 2012). Project-based writing and oral presentation through the writing-to-communicate WAC element also encompasses student collaboration and group responsibility.

**Collaborative student work**

When students create group presentations they are able to take on larger, more complex, and more interesting writing and topics than they could do alone (Craig, 2013). In order for L2 writers to work in groups through this element of WAC, they need to engage in peer conversation. Bruffee supports that oral language indirectly contributes to their advancement in writing proficiency. “Writing is temporally related to conversation. When we write, having already internalized the ‘skill and partnership’ of conversation, we displace it once more onto the written page” (Bruffee, 1984, p. 91). Teachers should compose student groups based on what they know about language proficiency levels and individual student strengths or needs. This knowledge allows a teacher to create groups in which skills are somewhat distributed.

Group work also allows teachers to create specific language and communication objectives for large classes. Long-term projects such as presentations take a large amount of time to plan while short-term group work does not require as much instruction if pairs are formed for a brief activity (Craig, 2013). Collaborative student group work can guide peer conversation
within structured language and content objectives created by the teacher. As a student-centered, and teacher facilitate activity, the teacher circulates within the groups to engage in informal assessment.

Assessment

Assessment of L2 writing can be portfolio based, covered during student writing conferences, or via small-group assessment. Teachers need to develop tools such as checklists, rubrics, and rating scales for teacher assessment or student self-assessment (Honigsfeld & Dove, 2010). Because grading writing is complex and because it is difficult to assign a grade to collaborative work, WAC encourages assessment to be flexible and student-centered. (Zawacki & Rogers, 2012). Assessment and insightful teacher feedback is part of the process that leads the writer to advancement.

Writers learn to write by writing through successive drafts, usually guided and assessed by a mentor or teacher. By complying to the process of writing drafts, and informally assessing those drafts, we introduce them to the idea that extended writing is a craft, and by reviewing and revising, they can improve their writing (Craig, 2013). The WAC processes of writing-to-learn and writing-to-communicate attached to collaborative group work and the revision process all contribute to content-area language learning through writing.

Conclusion

Collaborative teaching practices combined with the elements of WAC pedagogy are effective ways to teach L2 writing. Collaboration between content-area and ESL teachers provides the opportunity to share learning strategies across disciplines. Co-planning sessions and discussions should include the development of specific language objectives that contain content. Teachers work towards these content and language goals through the medium of L2
writing instruction. The student population and rise in number of L2 writers in the K-12 and university domains call for a change in instructional strategies, collaboration, and borrowing of strategies across educational boundaries.

A close examination of WAC revealed strategies and elements that complement L2 learning, such as writing-to-learn, writing-to-communicate, collaborative student work, and revision through draft writing. Teaching L2 writing through collaborative practices and elements from WAC ties content information to writing. This collaboration between the content-area and ESL faculty fosters a sense of input and being valued.

**Implications**

In the author’s experience as an ESL teacher in an urban elementary school, the rapidly growing number of ELLs enrolling in the school district is creating a need for instructional strategy and change. Writing and content-specific strategies like WAC could make a strong contribution to the K-12 domain in the area of writing. ESL and content-area teachers can offer insight into their different areas and create a collaborative planning and co-teaching situation that benefits all students who need language instruction. Using writing as a tool for language and content-area learning during co-taught classes encompasses many necessary skills that students need to succeed academically.

ESL and L2 writing can no longer be taught through isolated skills, vocabulary and grammar exercises that do not include academic content. ESL and content-area teachers need to collaborate to prepare L2 writers for academia or for the professional world. In order for the increasing numbers of L2 writers to succeed in academic writing, research and efforts towards collaborative practices and strategies need to cross educational boundaries of K-12 and the university.