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Teaching When the Machine Answers First: Mediation in EFL Writing

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Abstract

Large language models (LLMs) now answer before the teacher does. This theoretical paper asks what kind of mediation an LLM fails to provide, and what the teacher's role becomes once the machine answers first. Drawing on Vygotskian accounts of mediation, on Feuerstein's criteria for mediated learning as presented by Kozulin, on Tharp and Gallimore's means of assisting performance, and on research into teacher and AI complementarity, it argues that an LLM supplies information without intention, without adjustment to the learner and without responsibility for development. What remains for the teacher is therefore not content but the government of the division of labour between learner and machine. The paper proposes six teacher moves that reallocate that work: setting the division of labour, withholding help, diagnosing what the learner can almost do, graduating feedback, problematising machine output, and making the unassisted level visible. Together these define a second order mediation, in which the teacher mediates the learner's relation to the tool rather than to the content alone. Implications are drawn for EFL writing and for teacher preparation in Algerian universities.

Keywords: Mediation; more knowledgeable other; teacher role; scaffolding; generative AI; EFL writing; teacher education.

Introduction

Teaching has long rested on a simple asymmetry. The teacher knew more than the learner and decided what to reveal, when to reveal it and how much to hold back. Large language models (LLMs) have removed the first half of that asymmetry without touching the second. Students now arrive with answers, drafts and corrections already in hand, produced by a system that knows a great deal and decides nothing. Algerian EFL students report using ChatGPT to find vocabulary, organise ideas and overcome language barriers (Cheriguene&Dehbi, 2025), and Master's students report that neither teachers nor supervisors have given them any guidance on using such tools in academic writing (Ghounane et al., 2024).

When this help is left ungoverned, the effects on learning are measurable. In a field experiment with nearly a thousand secondary school students, unrestricted access to an AI assistant raised practice grades while lowering later performance once access was withdrawn (Bastani et al., 2025). A panel study of 26,811 Chinese secondary students found homework scores rising and examination scores falling within six months of adoption (Strömberg et al., 2026).

Institutional responses have concentrated on detection and prohibition rather than on pedagogy. Recent conceptual work positions generative AI as a bounded mediator within a triad of instructor, student and machine, and insists that pedagogical judgement remains human (Moganadas et al., 2026). Algerian research, for its part, documents how teachers feel: attitudes that combine enthusiasm with concern about overreliance and about the changing role of the educator (Benaïcha&Semroud, 2024), scarce opportunities for professional development (Achili&Zerrouki, 2024), teacher mediation named as the core of creativity supported by AI (Tobbi, 2026), and, among writing teachers, low uptake together with a preference for gradual and supervised integration (Bessadat&Korichi, 2025). What this literature does not yet supply is an account of what teachers should now do differently.

The present paper takes its starting point from a distinction that educational technology drew long ago: the effects obtained with a tool are not the same as its lasting effects on the learner (Salomon et al., 1991). Writing research now shows that distinction at work. Students who composed essays with ChatGPT produced better texts without greater gains in knowledge or transfer (Fan et al., 2025), and a study of EFL writers over eight weeks found that heavier offloading to

AI went with weaker independent thinking by the end of the course (Chen, 2026). What develops, on this reading, is the share of the work the learner actually performs. The pedagogical problem is therefore the government of that share, not the transmission of knowledge the machine already supplies. Two questions follow:

1. What kind of mediation does an LLM fail to provide, and what does that leave to the teacher?
2. Which teacher moves reallocate the work of writing to the learner, and what do they imply for EFL teacher preparation in Algeria?

The paper makes three contributions. It specifies what an LLM does not mediate, using established criteria for mediated learning rather than general claims about what machines lack. It proposes six teacher moves that reallocate the division of labour, each derived from a criterion or from a classic means of assisting performance. And it names the resulting role second order mediation, in which the teacher mediates the learner's relation to the tool. Section I sets out the framework, Section II identifies what the machine does not mediate, Section III presents the six moves, Section IV develops the notion of second order mediation, Section V turns to Algerian EFL programmes, and Section VI states limitations and a research agenda.

I. Theoretical Framework

The argument draws on three bodies of work. Sociocultural theory explains why assistance sometimes becomes capability and sometimes does not. Research on mediated learning specifies the conditions a mediator must satisfy. Educational technology describes how teaching functions are distributed between people and machines. Only the concepts the argument needs are introduced here, and they are introduced in that order.

I.1 Internalisation and the More Capable Other

For Vygotsky (1978), higher mental functions appear first between people and only later within the learner. Development is therefore the history of a relation that becomes a capability. The zone of proximal development names the distance between what a learner achieves alone and what they achieve with assistance, but the distance is developmentally meaningful only where the functions in question are still maturing (Chaiklin, 2003). Assistance that bypasses those functions produces performance, not growth.

The scaffolding tradition specifies how assistance does its work. Wood et al. (1976) described a tutor who controls the parts of a task that exceed the learner, and later research identified three defining features: contingency on the learner's current performance, the fading of support, and the gradual transfer of responsibility (van de Pol et al., 2010). Pea (2004) drew the consequence sharply: support that never fades is not scaffolding but distributed intelligence. On this account, what made the more capable other useful was never knowledge alone. It was the capacity to calibrate, to withhold and to hand back.

I.2 What Makes a Mediator

Kozulin (2003) distinguishes symbolic mediators, such as writing systems and diagrams, from human mediators, who select, frame and adjust experience for the learner. The distinction matters because the two are governed by different criteria. Feuerstein and colleagues proposed three universal conditions for a mediated learning experience: intentionality and reciprocity, in which the mediator deliberately directs the interaction and the learner responds; transcendence, in which the interaction reaches beyond the immediate task towards principles that apply elsewhere; and the mediation of meaning, in which the mediator conveys why the activity matters (Feuerstein et al., 1980; Kozulin, 2003).

Second language research gives these conditions an operational form. Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) showed that corrective feedback supports development when it is negotiated along a scale that begins implicitly and becomes explicit only as far as the learner requires, so that learners perform as much of the correction as they can. The help a learner still needs then becomes an index of development, which is the logic of dynamic assessment (Poehner, 2008). Mediation, in this tradition, is a graduated and diagnostic activity rather than the delivery of correct forms (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006).

I.3 Means of Assisting Performance and the Division of Labour

Tharp and Gallimore (1988) catalogued the means through which teachers assist performance: modelling, contingency management, feeding back, instructing, questioning and cognitive structuring. The list was written for classrooms in which the teacher was the only available source of assistance. It now requires reconsideration, because a machine performs several of these functions instantly and on demand.

Educational technology research has begun to describe the resulting division of labour. Holstein et al. (2019) studied what teachers and students see as the respective roles of human and machine instruction, and Holstein et al. (2020) proposed a framework for hybrid adaptivity in which humans and systems augment each other. Mishra et al. (2023) reconsidered teachers' technological and pedagogical knowledge after ChatGPT. These accounts, however, were developed for systems deployed inside classrooms and under institutional control, whereas the case examined here is a general purpose chatbot used privately, at home, before the teacher sees the work.

II. What an LLM Does not Mediate

An LLM satisfies none of the three conditions for mediated learning, and the failure is structural rather than a matter of current quality.

It has knowledge without intention. Intentionality and reciprocity require a mediator who directs the interaction towards the learner's development and adjusts to the learner's response. An LLM responds to the prompt. It cannot decide that this student, this week, should receive less help than last week, because it has no account of what the student could do last week. Liu et al. (2026) describe current assistants as built to give instant and complete responses and to decline

only for safety reasons, which is the opposite of the contingent withholding that scaffolding requires. The consequence is visible in behaviour: when learners themselves control when help arrives, they take more of it and learn less. In a chess training study lasting twelve weeks, learners who could request help at any moment improved by 30 per cent, against 64 per cent for learners who received only tips timed by the system, and their requests kept rising even though they knew the help was hurting them (Poulidis et al., 2025).

It answers the task rather than reaching beyond it. Transcendence is the criterion that distinguishes teaching from problem solving: the mediator uses the present task to establish a principle that will govern future tasks. A chatbot asked to correct a paragraph corrects that paragraph. It will produce a rule if asked, but the asking presupposes a learner who already knows which principle is at stake, which is precisely what a developing writer does not know.

It does not take responsibility for meaning, and its fluency conceals the fact. The same experiment that recorded learning losses also found that the unguarded assistant supplied correct answers only about half the time, and that students copied its errors anyway (Bastani et al., 2025). Human mediators are accountable for what learners take away; a system optimised for plausible continuation is not.

Seen against Tharp and Gallimore's (1988) catalogue, the machine performs modelling, feeding back, instructing and questioning instantly, and performs none of them contingently. It cannot manage contingency, because it has no view of the learner over time, and it does not structure cognition developmentally, because it structures answers. The conclusion for practice follows directly. Whatever the teacher's remaining function is, it is not to supply what the machine already supplies faster and at any hour. It is to supply what the machine cannot: direction, calibration, withholding and accountability.

III. Six Teacher Moves that Reallocate the Work

The moves below are not new pedagogies. They are the old means of assisting performance, reassigned to a classroom in which a machine answers first. Each is stated as a teacher action, tied to a criterion of mediation, and illustrated in EFL writing.

1. Setting the Division of Labour : Before a task begins, the teacher decides which operations belong to the learner and which may be delegated. In an argumentative essay, the plan and the line of argument may be reserved for the student, while the tool may be used to test alternative phrasings once a draft exists. The decision is stated in the task instructions and in the marking criteria, so that it becomes a rule of the activity rather than a private choice made at midnight. This move realises intentionality: someone other than the machine decides what the interaction is for.

2. Withholding. The assistance dilemma, the question of how much help to give and when, has always belonged to the designer of instruction rather than to the novice (Koedinger & Aleven, 2007). With a chatbot the novice inherits it, and the chess evidence suggests they resolve it badly (Poulidis et al., 2025). The teacher restores the sequence by requiring an attempt before help: a first paragraph written in class, a plan submitted before any tool is opened, a draft dated and kept. What matters is not surveillance but order, since the attempt creates the gap that help can then fill.

3. Diagnosing What the Learner Can Almost Do. No prompt supplies a model of the learner, and no chatbot builds one that survives the session. The teacher therefore remains the only source of contingency. Dynamic assessment offers a practical procedure: offer help in graduated steps and record how much explicitness the learner required, since responsiveness to mediation is itself the measure of development (Poehner, 2008). In writing classes this can be as modest as a five minute conference in which the teacher moves from a hint to a question to an explanation and notes where the learner took over.

4. Graduating Feedback : An LLM begins at the explicit end of the scale, rewriting the sentence. Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) showed that development follows the opposite path, from implicit to explicit, with the learner doing as much of the correcting as possible. The teacher reinstates the scale in two ways: by giving feedback that locates before it names and names before it corrects, and by instructing students to ask the tool for indications rather than for rewrites. The second is a teachable prompt practice with a developmental rationale, not a technical tip.

5. Problematising Machine Output : Reiser (2004) distinguished scaffolding that structures a task from scaffolding that problematises it, making the difficulty visible rather than removing it. Machine output is excellent material for the second. Students can be asked to find the error in a generated paragraph, to compare two versions and justify a choice, to restore the hedging that a model has smoothed away, or to defend a rejection of a suggestion. The purpose is supervisory capability: a learner who can evaluate the tool is no longer at its mercy.

6. Making the Unassisted Level Visible : Learners systematically overestimate what they can do when AI has been involved, and greater familiarity with AI does not protect them (Fernandes et al., 2026). Short unassisted tasks, repeated across the semester and compared with assisted work, turn that invisible gap into information the learner can act on. Where a prediction is added, asking students to estimate their unassisted mark before they write, the comparison also trains the knowledge of their own level on which independent study depends.

Taken together, the six moves define a curriculum of governance rather than of content. Two of them, setting the division of labour and withholding, concern the conditions under which help arrives. Two, diagnosing and graduating, restore contingency to feedback. Two, problematising and making the gap visible, build the learner's capacity to supervise the tool and to judge their own standing without it.

IV. The Teacher as Second Order Mediator

The six moves have a common structure. In classical accounts, the teacher mediates the learner's relation to an object: to the language, to the genre, to the text. When a machine stands between learner and object, and when it reaches the learner before the teacher does, the teacher's work moves one level up. It becomes the mediation of the learner's relation to the mediator. This can be called second order mediation.

The term is descriptive rather than evaluative, and it should not be read as a demotion. In Feuerstein's scheme, transcendence is exactly this kind of operation: the mediator uses the immediate task to establish principles that will govern activity elsewhere (Kozulin, 2003). A teacher who shows a student when to ask a machine for a hint rather than a rewrite is teaching a principle of conduct that outlives the assignment and, indeed, outlives the current generation of tools.

It also changes the basis of the teacher's authority. That authority no longer rests on knowing more than the learner, since on most matters of fact and phrasing it does not. It rests on judging better: on knowing which operations must be performed by the learner for development to occur, on recognising when an output exceeds what the learner could have produced, and on deciding what happens next. Conceptual work on generative AI in higher education reaches a similar conclusion from a different direction, positioning the machine as a bounded mediator whose educational value depends on human judgement and institutional design (Moganadas et al., 2026), and the hybrid adaptivity literature treats human and machine capabilities as complementary rather than interchangeable (Holstein et al., 2020).

One caution follows from the argument itself. Second order mediation is subject to the same requirement as any other scaffolding: it must fade. If students can regulate their use of a machine only while a teacher governs it, the dependence has simply moved from the tool to the teacher. The moves in Section III therefore end where they should, with learners who set their own division of labour, delay their own requests for help and check their own unassisted level. The aim is not supervision but its internalisation.

V. Implications for Algerian EFL programmes

Algerian higher education offers an unusually clear case, because two changes are arriving at once. English has been expanding rapidly since it entered the third year of primary school in 2022 and became a medium of instruction in some university disciplines in 2023, with lecturers trained in English between 2022 and 2024 (Ghouali&Haddam Bouabdallah, 2024), and an early evaluation of the primary reform reports strong public enthusiasm alongside concerns about continuity and teacher preparation (Hichour, 2025). At the same time, teachers report scarce professional development for AI (Achili&Zerrouki, 2024), mixed attitudes with explicit worry about overreliance and about their own changing role (Benaïcha&Semmoud, 2024), and, among writing teachers, low uptake with a preference for supervised and gradual integration (Bessadat&Korichi, 2025). Tobbi (2026) reports teachers themselves naming mediation as the core of any productive use.

Three implications follow. First, teacher preparation should be organised around the moves rather than around the tools. A module that teaches prompting will age with the interface, whereas a module that teaches how to set a division of labour, how to require an attempt before help, how to graduate feedback and how to build tasks that problematise machine output will not. Existing training for English medium instruction is the natural place to add it, since the same lecturers are already in the room.

Second, the Master's dissertation deserves particular attention, since it is the most consequential piece of writing students produce and the least supervised. Supervision can carry the moves directly: staged drafts with dated plans, feedback that begins implicitly, a requirement that candidates explain or revise passages of their own text during the defence. This treats the dissertation as a process to be mediated rather than a product to be screened, and it tests both what the candidate can do alone and how well they can supervise the tool.

Third, departmental policy should specify the division of labour by task type rather than issue a blanket ban. Prohibition pushes use out of sight and removes the teacher from the very interaction that needs mediating, a pattern already visible where students report receiving no guidance at all (Ghounane et al., 2024). A further practical consideration is workload. Where classes are large, the teacher's scarce time is best spent on diagnosis and on problematising tasks, while routine correction may be delegated to the tool only where accuracy is not itself the learning target. Comparing supervised examinations with coursework each semester gives departments an early indication of how far the two have drifted apart, a gap already documented in this system when assessment moved online (Hichour, 2022).

VI. Limitations

Three limitations should be stated. The argument is theoretical, so the six moves are derived rather than tested. The Algerian evidence drawn on here consists largely of small surveys and interview studies in which teachers report their own views, so it describes attitudes rather than classroom practice. And the tools change quickly, so any claim about what a chatbot does by default carries a date.

Conclusion

The more knowledgeable other has been replaced, and the replacement is not a teacher. An LLM knows more than any classroom needs and decides nothing about the learner in front of it: it does not intend, adjust, withhold or answer for what the learner takes away. Teaching is therefore no longer the transmission of what is already available at any hour. It is the government of the division of labour between a learner and a machine that will always answer first.

The six moves proposed here name that work: setting the division of labour, withholding, diagnosing, graduating feedback, problematising machine output and making the unassisted level visible. They describe a second order

mediation, whose success is measured by its own disappearance, when learners begin to govern their use of the tool themselves. For Algerian EFL programmes, where English is expanding faster than teacher preparation, the practical question is not how teachers can use AI. It is how they can teach alongside a machine that has already answered.

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