Market Power, Forward Trading and Supply Function

Competition

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May, 2008

Abstract

When firms can produce any level of output, strategic forward trading can enhance competition in the spot market. However, firms usually face capacity constraints, which change the incentives for strategic trading ahead of the spot market. This paper studies these incentives through a model where capacity constrained firms engage in forward trading before they participate in the spot market, which is organized as a multi-unit uniform-price auction. The model shows that when a capacity constrained firm commits itself through forward trading to a more competitive strategy in the spot market, its competitor prefers not to follow suit in the forward market and thus behave less competitively in the spot market than otherwise. Moreover, the expected consumer surplus is generally reduced as a consequence of less intense competition in the spot market.

*I am grateful to my advisors, Peter Cramton, Lawrence Ausubel and John Rust, for their guidance and support. I would also like to thank Daniel Armoni, Daniel Vincent and seminar participants at the University of Maryland and 2007 Latin American Meetings of the Econometric Society for helpful comments and discussions. Any remaining errors are my own responsibility. Comments welcome at herrera@econ.umd.edu
Introduction

It is generally argued that forward trading is socially beneficial. Two of the most common arguments state that forward trading allows efficient risk sharing among agents with different attitudes towards risk and improves information sharing, particularly through price discovery. It is also believed that forward trading enhances competition in the spot market by committing firms to more aggressive strategies. A firm, by selling forward, can become the leader in the spot market (the top seller), thereby improving its strategic position in the market. Still, when firms compete in quantities at the spot market, every firm faces the same incentives, resulting in lower prices and no strategic improvement for any firm. This is Allaz and Vila's (1993) argument. Green (1999) shows when firms compete in supply functions, forward trading might not have any effect on the intensity of competition in the spot market, but in general it will enhance competition. This pro-competitive argument has been used to support forward trading as a market mechanism to mitigate incentives to exercise market power, particularly in electricity markets.

The pro-competitive feature of forward trading has been challenged by recent papers. Mahenc and Salanié (2004) show when, in the spot market, firms producing substitute goods compete in prices instead of in quantities, firms take long positions (buy) in the forward market in equilibrium. This increases the equilibrium spot price compared to the case without forward market. In this paper as in Allaz and Vila's paper, firms use forward trading to credibly signal their commitment to more profitable spot market strategies. However, as Bulow et al. (1985) point out, prices are strategic complements, while quantities are strategic substitutes, which is the reason for the different equilibrium forward positions taken by firms in both papers, and the resulting effect on the intensity of competition. Liski and Montero (2006) show that under repeated interaction it becomes easier for firms to sustain collusive behavior in the presence of forward trading. The reason is that forward markets provide another instrument to punish deviation from collusive behavior, which reduces the gains from defection.

However, all these papers ignore a key point—that firms usually face capacity constraints,
which affects their incentives for strategic trading ahead of the spot market. When a capacity constrained firm sells forward, it actually softens competition in the spot market from the perspective of competitors. In the case where there are two firms and one sells its entire capacity forward, its competitor becomes the sole supplier in the spot market, which implies it has the power to set the price.

The following is an example of how forward trading can affect the intensity of competition in the spot market when firms are constrained on the quantity they can offer. The In-City (generation) capacity market in New York is organized as a multi-unit uniform-price auction, where the market operator (NYISO) procures capacity from the Divested Generation Owners (DGO’s). Two of the dominant firms in this market are KeySpan, with almost 2.4 GW of installed capacity and, US Power Gen, with 1.8 GW. Before May 2006, US Power Gen negotiated a three years swap (May 2006 – April 2009) with Morgan Stanley for 1.8 GW, by which it commits to pay (receive from) Morgan Stanley $7.57 million times the difference between the monthly auction price, $p$, and $\$7.57$ kw-month, whenever such difference is positive (negative). Morgan Stanley closed its position by negotiating with KeySpan the exact reverse swap.

The first swap works for US Power Gen as a credible signal that it will bid more aggressively in the monthly auction, since US Power Gen benefits from lower clearing prices in that auction. Also, this financial transaction could be explained on risk hedging grounds. The swap reduces US Power Gen’s exposure to the spot price by locking in, at $\$7.57$ per kw-month, the price it receives for those MWs of capacity its sells in the spot market. On the other side, the outcome of these transactions left KeySpan owning, either directly or financially, 4.2 GW of capacity for three years, which gave it a stronger dominant position in the In-City capacity market, and the incentive to bid higher prices in the monthly auction than otherwise. Moreover, it is difficult to explain this financial transaction on risk hedging grounds, since the swap increases KeySpan’s exposure to the uncertain price of the monthly auction, by buying at the fixed price and selling at a variable price (the spot price).

As this paper shows, when capacity constrained firms facing common uncertainty compete
in a multi-unit uniform-price auction with price cap, strategic forward trading does not enhance competition. On the contrary, firms use forward trading to soften competition, which leaves consumer worse off. The intuition of this result is that when a capacity constrained firm commits itself through forward trading to a more competitive strategy at the spot market, its competitor faces a more inelastic residual demand in that market. Hence, its competitor prefers not to follow suit in the forward market and thus behaves less competitively at the spot market than it otherwise would, by inflating its bids. Under the assumptions made here, once US Power Gen negotiated the swap with Morgan Stanley, KeySpan would have the incentive to bid higher prices in the monthly auction, than if there were no trading ahead of it, even if KeySpan did not buy the swap from Morgan Stanley.

When studying the effect of forward trading on investment incentives in a model with uncertain demand and Cournot competition in the spot market, Murphy and Smeers (2007) find that in some equilibria of the forward market one of the firms stays out of the market while the other firm trades. These equilibria come up when the capacity constraint of the latter firm binds at every possible realization of demand. Grimm and Zoettl (2007) also study that problem by assuming a sequence of Cournot spot market with certain demand at each market, but varying by market. They also find that when a firm’s capacity constraint binds in a particular spot market, this firm is the only one trading forwards which mature at that spot market. These results are in the same line as those on this paper. However, when the spot market is organized as a uniform-price auction, as is the case here, they hold even if the capacity constraints only bind for some demand realizations. Also, by modeling the spot market as a uniform-price auction with uncertain demand, the results on this paper are better suited for the understanding of wholesale electricity markets.

The results here are also related to those on demand/supply reduction in multi-unit uniform-price auctions. As Ausubel and Cramton (2002) show, in multi-unit uniform-price procurement auctions, bidders have an incentive to reduce supply in order to receive a higher price for their sales. This incentive grows with the quantity supplied and with the asymmetry on bidders’ size. Hence, large bidders make room for small bidders. When a capacity constrained firm sells forward, it behaves like a smaller bidder in the auction. Therefore,
the incentive to inflate bids increases for the other bidders in the auction. Consequently, strategic forward trading can be reinterpreted as a mechanism that allows firms to assign themselves to different markets, in order to strengthen their market power, which leaves firms better off, but at the expense of consumers who end up worse off. As the paper will show, usually the smaller firm decides to trade most of its capacity through the forward market, with the larger firm becoming almost the sole trader on the spot market.

The goal of this paper is not to challenge the general belief that forward trading is socially beneficial, but yes to challenge the pro-competitive view of forward trading by highlighting the impact of capacity constraints on the incentives for strategic forward trading.

The paper is organized as follows. Section 1 describes the model and its main assumptions. Section 2 characterizes the unique equilibrium of the spot market. Section 3 study the incentives for strategic forward trading and characterizes the equilibria of the forward market. Section 4 concludes. All the proofs are in the appendix.

1 The Model

There are two firms which produce and sell an homogeneous good in the spot market (date 1) to satisfy demand from non strategic consumers. At date 0, before the spot market takes place, firms can sell forward contracts (i.e. take short positions)\(^1\), in a competitive forward market, with the good traded in the spot market being the underlying good of the forward contracts. Also, at date 0 competitive risk neutral traders take positions on the forward market\(^2\). As it is usually assumed, forward contracts mature at the time the spot market meets, date 1. For simplicity, it is assumed the discount factor between forward and spot markets is one. If a firm sells forward at price \(p^h\) and the price in the spot market is \(p\), the payoff of the forward contract at maturity will be \((p^h - p)\) per unit. Therefore, forward contracts can be interpreted as specifying the seller receives (pays) the difference

\(^1\)As the (longer) working paper version shows, allowing firms to take long forward positions does not change the results.

\(^2\)It is not necessary that all traders be risk neutral. As long as a large proportion of them are so, the results hold. Also, consumers could be allowed to participate in the forward market without any change on the results.
between the forward price, $p^h$, and the spot price, $p$, if such difference is positive (negative). This is just a financial forward, which is settled without physical delivery, but through an equivalent monetary payment\textsuperscript{3}. It is assumed along the paper there is no risk of default from any party involved in a transaction in the forward market. Moreover, no contract can be renegotiated in the spot market.

The demand faced by both firms in the spot market, $D(p, x)$, is assumed to be uncertain, with $x$ being a demand shock which can take any value on the interval $[0, M]$. $F(x)$ is the cumulative distribution function of the demand shock, which is assumed to be strictly increasing, continuous and piecewise continuously differentiable. The spot market is modeled as a multi-unit uniform-price auction, where the auctioneer’s goal is to ensure enough supply to match demand. A firm’s strategy in the spot market consists of an increasing supply function. The realization of the demand uncertainty takes place at date 1, but after firms have chosen their supply functions. Firms are assumed to be capacity constrained, with $k_i$ representing the installed capacity of firm $i$. Each firm’s cost function, $C_i(q_i)$ where $q_i$ is the quantity produced by firm $i$, is assumed to be increasing, piecewise continuously differentiable and convex.

Firms’ cost functions and installed capacities are common knowledge. At date 0, firms simultaneously and independently chose the amount of forward contracts each one wants to sell. Then, at date 1 given its portfolio of forward contracts and that of its competitor, each firm chooses the supply function it will submit to the auctioneer. This choice is also made simultaneously and independently by both firms. Once the auctioneer has the supply functions from both firms, the demand uncertainty is realized.

\section{Spot Market}

The equilibrium concept to be used is the subgame perfect Nash equilibrium. Hence, the first step on the study of firms’ incentives to trade forward at date 0 is solving for the spot

\textsuperscript{3}As Mahenc and Salanié (2004) point out, most actual forward markets function as markets without physical delivery. Moreover, the qualitative results would not change if they assumed to be settled through physical delivery.
market equilibrium for every pair of forward transactions, $h = (h_1, h_2)$. At date 1 before the realization of the demand uncertainty, firms chose their optimal supply functions taking $h$ as given, with that for firm $i$ ($i = 1, 2$) represented by $s_i (p; h)$. In order to carry out a meaningful analysis of the forward market, it is necessary to obtain close form solutions for the equilibrium spot supply functions. However, as it will become clear later, that might turn out cumbersome. For that reason, the spot market demand will be assumed to be inelastic, $D (p, x) = x$, which will simplify the analysis\(^4\). To guarantee existence of a relevant equilibrium, a price cap, $\bar{p}$, will be assumed. Also, proportional rationing will be used when required.

The literature on supply function equilibrium shows that when demand is certain or when it is uncertain but with the highest possible demand, $M$ in this case, lower than total installed capacity, $k_1 + k_2$, there exist multiple equilibria in the spot market (see Klemperer and Meyer (1989)). However, when there is positive probability of both capacity constraints binding, the spot market has a unique equilibrium (see Holmberg (2004) and Aromí (2007)). For this reason, it is assumed that $M \geq k_1 + k_2$\(^5\).

Firms’ supply functions depend on the forward portfolio, $h$. However, for ease of notation, such reference will be suppressed hereafter, $s_i (p) \equiv s_i (p; h)$. Since the spot market is modeled as a uniform-price auction, the equilibrium spot price for a given profile of supply functions, $(s_1 (p), s_2 (p))$, and quantity demanded, $x$, is the lowest price that clears the market:

$$p (x, s) = \begin{cases} \inf \{ p \in [0, \bar{p}] : x \leq s_1 (p) + s_2 (p) \} & \text{if } x < S (\bar{p}) \\ \bar{p} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

where $s = (s_1, s_2)$ and $S (p)$ is the aggregate supply function.

Remember that the payoff of a forward transaction, when firms have submitted the profile $s$ of supply functions and $x$ is the realization of the spot demand, is just $(p^h - p (x, s))$ per

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\(^4\)This might seem a strong assumption. However, for example, wholesale electricity demand can be closely approximated by an inelastic demand. Moreover, the modeling in this paper fits the functioning of most wholesale electricity markets.

\(^5\)This is also a reasonable assumption in many markets, and particularly in wholesale electricity markets. Another option is to interpret $D (p, x)$ as the residual demand after subtracting the bids from non-strategic firms.
unit, with \( p^h \) being the forward price. Hence, if firm \( i \) \((i = 1, 2 \text{ and } i \neq j)\) sold \( h_i \) units in the forward market, its expected profits can be written as:

\[
\Pi_i (s_i, s_j; h) = E \left[ p(x, s) q_i(x, s) - C_i(q_i(x, s)) + \left( p^h - p(x, s) \right) h_i \right] \tag{2}
\]

where \( q_i(x, s) \) is the quantity delivered in equilibrium by firm \( i \) for a given realization of the demand and a given pair of supply functions. If there is no excess demand, \( q_i(x, s) = s_i(p(x, s)) \), otherwise \( q_i(x, s) < s_i(p(x, s)) \) due to rationing.\(^6\)

The goal of firm \( i \) when choosing its spot market supply function, \( s_i(p) \), is to maximize its expected profits, represented by (2), subject to its capacity constraint and taking date 0 forward sales as given.

Aromí (2007) characterizes the unique equilibrium when \( h_i = 0 \) for \( i = 1, 2 \). The remainder of this section extends his results to the case where firms have previously sold forwards. Let \( c_i(q_i) \) represent the marginal cost function of firm \( i \), and define \( p_0 = \inf \{ p \geq 0 : s_1(p) > 0 \text{ and } s_2(p) > 0 \} \).

**Lemma 1** When firms have sold forward, the equilibrium supply functions are continuous for every price \( p \in (p_0, \overline{p}) \) and \( 0 \leq p_0 \leq \max \{ c_1(0), c_2(0) \} \).

**Lemma 2** When firms have sold forward, the equilibrium supply functions are strictly increasing at every \( p \in (p_0, \overline{p}) \).

Aromí showed when no firm has not traded ahead of the spot market, both firms offer all of their installed capacity at the price cap, and the equilibrium supply function of at least one firm is continuous at \( \overline{p} \). That result still holds when firms have sold forward at date 0. This is so, because it is not profitable for firms to reduce the quantity supplied at the price cap below its installed capacity, even when firms have sold forward. Moreover, since

\(^6\)When there is excess demand at the equilibrium price \( p \), then \( q_i(x, s) = s_i(p) + (x - S(p))^+ \frac{\overline{x}(p) - \underline{x}(p)}{S(p) - \underline{S}(p)} \) where \( \underline{x}(p) \equiv \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} s_i(p - \epsilon) \), \( \overline{x}(p) \equiv \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} s_i(p + \epsilon) \), and the same applies for the aggregate supply.
equilibrium supply functions are continuous for prices up to \( \bar{p} \), if \( \lim_{p \to \bar{p}} q_i(p) < k_i \) for both firms, at least one of them will find profitable to deviate and sell more quantity at prices just below the price cap, no matter whether they sold forward or not.

Firm \( i \)'s residual demand is \( d_i(p; x) \equiv \max \{0, x - s_j(p)\} \). The collection of price-quantity points that maximize firm \( i \)'s ex-post profits given firm \( j \)'s supply function form an ex-post optimal supply function. Since the uncertainty in the model, which comes from the additive demand shock, causes firm \( i \)'s residual demand to shift horizontally without affecting its slope, the ex-post optimal supply function is also the ex-ante optimal supply function, the one that maximizes (2) given firm \( j \)'s supply function. This equivalence between ex-ante and ex-post optimal supply functions holds as long as firm are risk-neutral and the uncertainty can be represented by a single random variable that only affects firms' residual demand additively. If firms are risk-averse and the uncertainty in the model enters additively, the ex-ante optimal supply function is not equivalent to the supply function that maximizes ex-post utility, but to the one that maximizes ex-post profits.\(^7\)

Therefore, firm \( i \)'s optimization problem can be represented as one where firm \( i \) chooses the price that maximize its profits for each particular level of demand, given its competitor (firm \( j \)) supply function.

\[
\max_{p(x)} \left[ p(x) (x - s_j(p(x))) + (p_h - p(x)) h_i - C_i(x - s_j(p(x))) \right] \\
\text{s.t. } 0 \leq x - s_j(p(x)) \leq k_i
\]

(3)

The first order conditions for an interior solution for firms 1 and 2 give us the following system of differential equations, which once \( x - s_j(p(x)) \) is replaced by \( s_i(p(x)) \) characterizes the equilibrium supply functions:

\[
s'_2(p(x)) = \frac{s_1(p(x)) - h_1}{p(x) - c_1(s_1(p(x)))} \\
(4)
\]

\[
s'_1(p(x)) = \frac{s_2(p(x)) - h_2}{p(x) - c_2(s_2(p(x)))} \\
(5)
\]

\(^7\)See Hortacșu and Puller (2007) for a discussion of the case where firms have private information and they can be risk-averse.
The initial conditions of the equilibrium supply functions depend on both firms’ forward transactions. The following lemma characterizes them.

**Lemma 3** The equilibrium supply function of firm $i$ satisfies: $s_i(c_i(h_i)) = h_i$; and $\forall p < p_0 \ s_i(p) = h_i$ if $c_i(h_i) \leq p_0$ otherwise $s_i(p) = s_i(p_0) < h_i$, $i = 1, 2$.

Since forwards are assumed to be purely financial contracts and there is no risk of default nor renegotiation is allowed, a firm’s residual demand might be lower than its forward portfolio. In such a case the firm can be seen not as a seller in the spot market, but as a net buyer. To see this, rewrite (3) as $\pi_i^h = p(s_i(p) - h_i) + C_i(s_i(p)) + p^h h_i$, where the reference to $x$ have been suppressed for ease of notation. If $d_i(p) < h_i$, then $s_i(p) < h_i$, therefore, the first term which is the net revenue from the spot market would be negative. In that event, firm $i$ does not have any incentive to exercise monopoly power over its residual demand by pushing the equilibrium price as high as it is profitable. On the contrary, it has incentive to exercise monopsony power by driving down the equilibrium price as much as it is profitable. For example, if $0 < s_i(p_0) < h_i$, the optimal strategy for firm $i$ will be to offer any quantity below $s_i(p_0)$ at the lowest possible price, zero. This is the intuition behind lemma 3.

Lemmas 1 through 3 and equations (4) and (5) characterize the equilibrium profile of supply functions. It is easy to see from the system of first order conditions and the proof of lemma 3 that such supply functions are actually mutual best responses; hence, there exists at least one equilibrium of the spot market. As Aromí shows for the case where firms have sold no contracts, the monotonicity and continuity of the profile of supply functions with respect to the boundary conditions at the price cap ensure uniqueness of the equilibrium in supply functions. It is also easy to see from equations (4) and (5) that when firms traded in the forward market, the profile of supply functions defined by those equations is also monotonic and continuous with respect to the boundary conditions at $\bar{p}$. Hence, the equilibrium defined by lemmas 1 through 3 and equations (4) and (5) is the unique equilibrium in supply functions when firms have previously sold forwards.

By selling forward at date 0, firm $i$ decreases not only its net revenues from the spot
market, which are \( p(s_i(p) - h_i) \), but also its marginal net revenues. However, its cost and its residual demand are not affected. Hence, given the strategy of its competitor, once firm \( i \) sold forward at date 0, its strategy in the spot market, \( s_i(p) \), becomes more aggressive than if it did not sell at date 0. Particularly, it can be seen from equations (4) or (5) that given the strategy of firm \( j \), the higher is \( h_i \), the lower is the price chosen by firm \( i \) for any realization of \( d_i(x) \). Hence selling contracts shifts firm \( i \)'s supply function outwards. As a consequence, a forward sale is just a credible commitment device for a more aggressive selling strategy in the spot market.

When firms are capacity constrained, as is the case in this paper, equations (4) and (5) are not enough to characterize the effect of forward transactions on the spot market equilibrium, the conditions on the supply functions at the price cap are also important. Equilibrium supply functions are strictly increasing at every price on the interval \((p_0, p)\), which means no firm offers in equilibrium its total installed capacity at a price below the price cap. Therefore, forward sales could have an impact on the slope of the supply functions, no matter whether they are linear in prices or not.

When firms face no capacity constraints and there is no price cap, there exist multiple equilibria of the spot market. When marginal costs are constant and symmetric, with \( C_i(q_i) = c q_i \), the supply functions are linear in price in every equilibria. Moreover, their slopes, which are symmetric, are independent of forward positions and only the intercept of each firm’s equilibrium supply function depends on its own forward position\(^8\). Hence, under these assumptions, there is a clear relationship between forward transactions and equilibrium spot supply functions, which is not necessarily the case when equilibrium supply functions are non linear in price.

The goal of this paper is to study how capacity constraints shape firms’ incentives for strategic forward trading. Hence, assuming constant and symmetric marginal costs is a sensible choice, since in this way the effect of capacity constraints can be clearly identified. All of this can be seen on the appendix, where the system of equations given by (4) and (5)

\(^8\)The difference among all the possible equilibria for a given profile of forwards, \( h \), is just the slope of the supply functions.
is solved.

When firms are capacity constrained and there is a price cap\(^9\), the supply functions in the unique equilibrium are still linear in prices. However, now not only the intercept depends on forward positions, but also the slope of the equilibrium supply functions. Let’s define \(k_{a_i} = \max \{0, k_i - h_i\}\) as firm \(i\)’s adjusted capacity and \(k_{a_m} = \min \{k_{a_1}, k_{a_2}\}\). The following expressions define the equilibrium supply functions, which are calculated on the appendix.

\[
\begin{align*}
    s_i(p) &= \begin{cases} 
        \alpha_i + \beta p_0 & p \in [0, p_0] \\
        \alpha_i + \beta p & p \in (p_0, \bar{p}) \\
        k_i & p = \bar{p}
    \end{cases} \\
    i &= 1, 2
\end{align*}
\]

(6)

with

\[
\begin{align*}
    \alpha_i &= h_i - \beta c, \quad \beta = \frac{k_{a_m}}{p - c} \\
    p_0 &= c - \min \{h_1, h_2\} \\
    \beta &= \frac{{k_{a_m}}}{p - c}
\end{align*}
\]

(7)

(8)

As lemma 3 states, when \(p = c\), the quantity supplied by firm \(i\) equals its short forward position, \(s_i(c) = h_i\). Additionally, if \(k_{a_1} < k_{a_2}\), then the supply function of firm 1 is continuous at \(\bar{p}\), while the limit \(\lim_{p \to \bar{p}} s_2(p) = k_2 - (k_{a_2} - k_{a_1}) < k_2\), which means firm 2 withholds \((k_{a_2} - k_{a_1})\) units.

Let’s say that firm \(i\) is relatively more aggressive than firm \(j\) in the spot market, if its capacity constraint binds at a lower realization of demand than that of firm \(j\). Now, this implies the relatively less aggressive firm is the one that withholds part of its installed capacity in the spot market. In the case of constant symmetric marginal costs, the difference in adjusted capacity is not only the right measure for relative aggressiveness in the spot market, but it also represents the quantity withheld in that market. When firms have symmetric constant marginal costs, but asymmetric installed capacities and they sold nothing at date 0, the optimal strategy for the largest firm is to mimic the other firm at prices on the interval

\[^9\]The role of the price cap is to ensure the existence of a relevant equilibrium, otherwise firms would be offering every unit at a price of infinite.
and then offer its extra capacity at the price cap\textsuperscript{10}. Since in equilibrium firms offer any quantity up to its forward holdings at prices below their marginal cost, firm $i$'s adjusted capacity represents the portion of firm $i$'s installed capacity that is offered at prices above marginal and average cost. Therefore, the firm with the largest adjusted capacity, the less aggressive one, withholds its extra adjusted capacity and offers it at the price cap.

When costs are not symmetric, which firm is relatively more aggressive depends not only on the difference in adjusted capacity, but also on the cost difference. For example, if firms are symmetric in capacity and they have not sold any forwards at date 0, but their constant marginal costs are different, the firm with the lowest marginal and average cost will be more aggressive in the spot market, even though both firms have exactly the same adjusted capacity. Therefore, difference in adjusted capacity as well as difference in costs are the factors that determine which firm will be relatively more aggressive in the spot market.

### 3 Forward Market

At date 0 firms compete in the forward market by choosing the amount of forwards they want to sell, while competitive traders take forward positions. The competitive assumption together with the neutrality towards risk by firms and traders implies that (2) becomes:

\[
\Pi_i (h_i, h_j) = E \left[ p(x, h) q_i (x, h) - cq_i (x, h) \right] 
\]

Equations (6) - (8) define the equilibrium supply functions in the spot market. Now using them and the demand, $D(p, x) = x$, the equilibrium spot price for a given vector of forward transactions, $p(x; h)$, can be written as:

\[
p(x; h) = \begin{cases} 
0 & 0 \leq x \leq S \\
\frac{x-h_1-h_2}{2c} + c & S < x < S \\
\bar{p} & x \geq S 
\end{cases}
\]

\textsuperscript{10} Since the smaller firm has already exhausted its capacity, consumers can only buy from the largest firm. Hence, the optimal price is $\bar{p}$.
where, \( S \equiv \lim_{p \to 0} S(p) = h_1 + h_2 + 2\beta (p_0 - c) \) and \( \overline{S} \equiv \lim_{p \to p^*} S(p) = |ka_1 - ka_2| \). Both firms’ equilibrium supply functions, and therefore the aggregate supply function, are strictly increasing only for demand realizations on the interval \((S, \overline{S})\).

The quantity delivered by each firm in equilibrium in the spot market depends on the demand realization, installed capacity and forward sales. When \( x \in [0, S] \), if \( p_0 \) is strictly positive the quantity delivered by firm \( i \) can be \( x \) or zero, depending on whether firm \( i \) supplies a strictly positive quantity at \( p_0 \) or not.\(^{11}\) However, if \( p_0 \) equals zero, firm \( i \) delivers \( x \frac{\alpha_i}{\alpha_i + \alpha_j} \) in equilibrium in the spot market\(^{12}\). When \( x \in (S, \overline{S}) \) the quantity delivered by firm \( i \) is just given by plugging \( p(x; h) \) into (6). If \( x \in [\overline{S}, k_1 + k_2] \), the firm with the lowest adjusted capacity delivers its entire installed capacity, while the other firm delivers the extra quantity needed to match demand, and when \( x \in (k_1 + k_2, M] \) each firm delivers its entire installed capacity. Hence, firm \( i \)'s spot profits as a function of the demand realization and forward sales are represented by (11).

As it can be seen from equations (6) - (8), the higher a firm sales at date 0, the more aggressive its spot market strategy will be, \( \alpha_i \) increases with \( h_i \). If there were no capacity constraints and no price cap, this would be the only effect of forward transactions on the spot market.

Hence, if by selling forward firm \( i \) does not trigger any response on its competitor, then firm \( i \) will have no incentive to sell them. Firm \( i \) could have taken the same more aggressive strategy in the spot market without selling forward, but it did not do so, because it would have decreased its expected profits. Firm \( i \)'s more aggressive strategy weakly increases its sales for every demand realization, but it also weakly decreases the equilibrium spot price, with the latter effect being the dominant one. This is the reason why firms would not take

\(^{11}\)Remember that \( p_0 = \inf \{p : s_1(p) > 0 \text{ and } s_2(p) > 0 \} \). Therefore, if \( p_0 \) is strictly positive at most one firm offers a strictly positive quantity at this price.

\(^{12}\)This comes from assuming proportional rationing when there is excess supply.
short forward positions if there were no capacity constraints nor price cap.

\[
\pi_i(x, h) = \begin{cases} 
\pi_{I}^I = 0 & \text{if } h_i \leq \beta c \& h_i \leq h_j \\
\pi_{II}^I = -cx & \text{if } h_i > h_j \& h_j \leq \beta c \\
\pi_{III}^I = -cx \frac{\alpha_i}{\alpha_1 + \alpha_2} & \text{if } h_i > \beta c \& h_j > \beta c \\
\pi_{IV}^I = \frac{(x-h_i)^2-h_i^2}{4\beta} & \text{if } h_i \geq \min\{h_j, k_j\} \\
\pi_{V}^I = (\bar{p} - c)(x - k_j) & \text{if } k a_i < k a_j \\
\pi_{VI}^I = (\bar{p} - c)k_i & \text{if } k a_i \geq k a_j \\
\pi_{VII}^I = (\bar{p} - c)k_i & \text{if } k a_i \geq k a_j \\
\end{cases} 
\]

(11)

However, when firms face capacity constraints and a price cap; if firm \( j \)'s adjusted capacity is the smallest of both, then firm \( i \) will not sell forward, because its more aggressive strategy will not trigger any response from firm \( j \). But, when firm \( i \)'s installed capacity binds at lower demand realizations than that of firm \( j \) (\( k a_i < k a_j \)), an increase in the amount of forwards firm \( i \) sells, not only commits firm \( i \) to a more aggressive strategy in the spot market, but also gives firm \( j \) the incentive to inflate its bids (or withhold its supply) even more. When firm \( i \)'s adjusted capacity is the smallest one, an increase in firm \( i \)'s forward sales decreases the elasticity of its supply function and therefore, the elasticity of firm \( j \)'s residual demand. Hence, firm \( j \) has an incentive to increase the prices at which it offers every single unit. Therefore, when firms are capacity constrained, firm \( j \)'s response might be strong enough to give firm \( i \) the incentive to sell forwards at date 0.

Expected spot profit is a continuous function of forward transactions, but this function is not differentiable everywhere. The derivative of \( \Pi_i \) with respect to \( h_i \) does not exist at \( h_i = k_i - k_j + \min\{h_j, k_j\} \) (where \( k a_i = k a_j \)). Moreover, the left hand side derivative is negative, while the right hand side derivative will never be smaller than the former and it
could even be positive. Hence, it is not guaranteed that $\Pi_i(h_i, h_j)$ is quasi-concave in $h_i$\(^{13}\). As a consequence, existence of pure-strategy equilibria is not guaranteed for every demand distribution. However, as theorem 1 states, only one particular type of equilibrium might exists.

**Theorem 1** In every possible pure-strategy equilibrium of the forward market, only one firm sells forward, but less than its installed capacity.

The intuition behind theorem 1 is that at least one of the firms has an incentive to sell forwards when its competitor does not sell, because the response it triggers in its competitor is strong enough to increase its expected profits. Also, no firm wants to hedge its entire installed capacity, because the negative impact on the spot price would be too large, since its optimal strategy at date 1 would be to offer every single unit at a price of zero. Finally, there can not be an equilibrium where both firms sell strictly positive amounts at date 0, because only one firm at a time can trigger the necessary response on its competitor to turn a forward sale in a profitable action.

Now, by assuming that demand is uniformly distributed on $[0, M]$ a close form solution for the equilibrium forward sales, $h_i^*$, can be obtained. This allows the study of some features of the equilibria and particularly of the effect of forward transactions on the distribution of total welfare between consumers, which are represented by the auctioneer, and producers.

Define $c = \delta \bar{p}$, where $\delta \in (0, 1)$.

**Theorem 2** When $x \sim U [0, M]$, $\left( h_i^*, h_j^* \right) = \left( \frac{2(\bar{p}-c)}{\bar{p}+c} k_i, 0 \right)$ is the equilibrium of the forward market if:

\[
\frac{(2+\delta)}{3^{3/2}\delta} \geq \frac{k_i}{k_j} \quad \frac{9\delta^3 + 4(1-\delta)^3}{36\delta^3 - 9\delta^4 + \frac{16}{3}(1-\delta)^4} \frac{2+\delta}{(4-\delta^2)(1-\delta)} \frac{\delta}{2(\delta-\delta^2+2\delta^3)} \geq \frac{k_i}{k_j}
\]

\(^{13}\)The best response correspondences might not be closed-graph (be upper hemi-continuous).
Moreover, assume without loss of generality that \( k_1 > k_2 \). If \( k_1 - k_2 > \hat{\gamma} \), where \( \hat{\gamma} \) is defined by:

\[
\hat{\gamma}^2 + \hat{\gamma} \left( \frac{4\delta}{2 + 3\delta} \right) k_2 - \frac{4}{3} \left( \frac{1 - \delta}{2 + 3\delta} \right) k_2^2 = 0
\]

then, there is a unique equilibrium with firm 2 selling \( h_2^* = \frac{2(p - c)}{2p + c} k_2 \).

A very interesting feature of the equilibrium is that when the asymmetry between firms in terms of their installed capacity is larger than \( \hat{\gamma} \), there is a unique equilibrium of the forward market, where only the smaller firm sells forward. Obviously, having a unique equilibrium is a very interesting feature, but the unique equilibrium in itself is very striking.

In equilibrium, firms split the two markets (forward and spot) between them. When \( |k_1 - k_2| > \hat{\gamma} \), the small firm trades mainly through the forward market, while the large firm becomes almost the sole seller in the spot market. There is no equilibrium where the large firm sells forward at date 0, because the small firm is relatively so small that its optimal response to the large firm’s more aggressive strategy in the spot market is not enough to offset the downward impact of this latter strategy on the spot price; and on the forward price through the no arbitrage condition. Hence, when seeing in a market that only the small firm takes a hedge against the uncertain price, it would be risky to draw the standard conclusion that this is a sign the smaller firm is more risk averse than the larger one, since as this paper shows this might happen even when firms are risk neutral.

When a firm takes a short forward position in equilibrium, the size of the forward sale is independent of the other firm’s installed capacity. Hence, \( k_j \) only plays a role on determining whether firm \( i \) sells at date 0, but not on how much it sells when it does.

Since demand is assumed to be inelastic, forward trading can not increase or decrease expected welfare, but it can impact its distribution between consumers and producers. As the following theorem shows, firms are generally better off in aggregate thanks to forward trading. But, the other side of this story is that consumer are worse off by firms’ strategic use of forward trading, since it allows firms to step up their exercise of market power.
**Theorem 3** When firms are capacity constrained and the small firm takes a short forward position in equilibrium, strategic forward trading reduces expected consumer surplus. However, when the large firm is the one taking the short position in equilibrium, expected consumer surplus decreases if $|k_i - k_j| < \tilde{\gamma}$, but increases if $\tilde{\gamma} < |k_i - k_j| \leq \tilde{\gamma}$; where $\tilde{\gamma}$ is defined by:

$$\gamma^2 + (2k_2) \gamma - \frac{(1 - \delta)^2}{3(1 + 2\delta)} k_2^2 = 0 \quad (12)$$

4 Conclusion

Forward trading allows efficient risk sharing among agents with different attitudes toward risk and improves information sharing, particularly through price discovery. It is also believed that forward trading enhances competition in the spot market. The standard argument claims a firm, by selling forward, can become the leader in the spot market (the top seller), thereby improving its strategic position in the market. Still, every firm faces the same incentives, resulting in lower prices and no strategic improvement for any firm. Due to this effect on competition, forward trading has become a centerpiece of most liberalized electricity markets. However, as this paper showed, this argument does not hold when firms face capacity constraints.

When capacity constrained firms facing common uncertainty compete in a multi-unit uniform-price auction with price cap, strategic forward trading does not enhance competition. On the contrary, firms use forward trading to soften competition, which leaves consumer worse off. The intuition of this result is that when a capacity constrained firm commits itself through forward trading to a more competitive strategy at the spot market, its competitor faces a more inelastic residual demand in that market. Hence, its competitor prefers not to follow suit in the forward market and thus behaves less competitively at the spot market than it otherwise would, by inflating its bids. Therefore, forward trading allows firms to step up the exercise of market power, which leaves them better off at the expense of consumers.

The results of this paper generalize to the standard auction case where the auctioneer is the
seller and the bidders are the buyers. Bidders in uniform-price auctions have an incentive to reduce demand in order to pay a lower price for their purchases. This incentive grows with the quantity demanded. In a standard auction, when a bidder with demand for a finite quantity buys forward, it behaves like a smaller bidder in the auction. Therefore, the incentive to reduce their bids increases for the other bidders in the auction. Consequently, strategic forward trading intensify demand reduction in standard uniform-price auctions, which reduces seller’s expected revenue.

**Appendix**

**Proof of lemma 1.** This lemma states that if both firms are offering strictly positive quantity in equilibrium and the spot price is below the price cap, equilibrium supply functions are continuous when firms have sold forwards. This proof follows Aromi’s proof for the case when firms did not sell forward.

Assume firm $j$ offers $\left(q_j - q_j^0\right) > 0$ at a price $p^* \in (p_0, \bar{p})$. For any subset $[p^*, p^* + \varepsilon]$ firm $i$ must offer additional quantity, otherwise firm $j$ can profitably deviate by withholding supply at $p^*$. Let’s define $p_i^\varepsilon (p^*) = \inf \{p : s_i (p) \geq s_i (p^*) + \varepsilon\}$, and observe that $\lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} p_i^\varepsilon (p^*) = p^*$.

For example, firm $i$ can deviate by submitting the following supply function:

$$
\tilde{s}_i^\varepsilon (p) = \begin{cases} 
  s_i (p^*) + \varepsilon & \text{if } p \in (p^* - \varepsilon, p_i^\varepsilon (p^*)) \\
  s_i (p) & \text{otherwise} 
\end{cases}
$$

(A.1)

The effect of this deviation on the expected profits can be split in two parts, a loss from lower prices, $\Omega^\varepsilon$, and a gain from larger sales, $\Gamma^\varepsilon$.

The loss is bounded above by:

$$
\Omega^\varepsilon < (p_i^\varepsilon (p^*) - p^* + \varepsilon) (s_i (p_i^\varepsilon (p^*)) - h_i) Pr^\varepsilon (\Delta p)
$$

(A.2)
$Pr^\varepsilon (\Delta p)$ is the probability that the price changes due to the deviation by firm $i$, and clearly it converges to zero as $\varepsilon$ does so. Moreover, the difference in prices also converges to zero with $\varepsilon$, hence the derivative of the upper bound is zero at $\varepsilon = 0$.

Now, the gain $\Gamma^\varepsilon$, is bounded below by:

$$
\Gamma^\varepsilon > (p^* - \varepsilon - c_i (s_i (p^*) + \varepsilon)) \Delta E^\varepsilon (q_i)
$$  \hspace{1cm} (A.3)

The unit markup is strictly positive at $\varepsilon = 0$. In addition, as Aromí shows, the change in expected quantity, $\Delta E^\varepsilon (q_i)$, is strictly increasing in $\varepsilon$ at $\varepsilon = 0$ and it is independent of forward transactions. Therefore, this deviation is profitable even in the case where firms sell forwards. ■

**Proof of lemma 2.** This lemma states that if both firms are offering strictly positive quantity in equilibrium and the spot price is below the price cap, equilibrium supply functions are strictly increasing when firms have sold forward. Besides a minor change on the lower bound for the gains in terms of prices to allow firms to sell forward, this proof follows step by step Aromí’s proof of its lemma 2.

When firms did not trade ahead of the spot market, if firm $i$ offers the same quantity for $p \in [\underline{p}, \bar{p}]$ there are two possible cases. If firm $j$ is offering additional units for that range of prices, then firm $j$ can increase its expected profits by withholding supply for that range of prices. If no firm offers additional units for that range of prices, firm $i$ can withhold supply at every $p \in (\underline{p} - \varepsilon, \bar{p})$, and increase its expected profits.

For example, firm $i$ can deviate to:

$$
\tilde{s}_i^\varepsilon (p) = \begin{cases} 
  s_i (p - \varepsilon) & \text{if } p \in (\underline{p} - \varepsilon, \bar{p}) \\
  [s_i (p - \varepsilon), s_i (\bar{p})] & \text{if } p = \bar{p} \\
  s_i (p) & \text{otherwise} 
\end{cases}
$$  \hspace{1cm} (A.4)
The losses in terms of quantities are bounded above by:

$$\Omega^\varepsilon < p \left( s_i(p) - s_i(p - \varepsilon) \right) \left( F \left( s_i(p) + s_j(p) \right) - F \left( s_i(p - \varepsilon) + s_j(p - \varepsilon) \right) \right)$$  \hspace{1cm} (A.5)

Moreover, the upper bound converge to zero as $\varepsilon$ converges to zero and its derivative is also zero at $\varepsilon = 0$. Now the gains in terms of prices are bounded below by:

$$\Gamma^\varepsilon > (\overline{p} - p) \left( s_i(p - \varepsilon) - h_i \right) \left( F \left( s_i(p) + s_j(p) \right) - F \left( s_i(p) + s_j(p - \varepsilon) \right) \right)$$  \hspace{1cm} (A.6)

The lower bound is strictly increasing in $\varepsilon$ at $\varepsilon = 0$, even after firms sold forward. \hfill \blacksquare

**Proof of lemma 3.** Let’s define $s^*_i(p)$ as firm $i$’s equilibrium supply function, and remember that $p(x)$ is the equilibrium price as a function of demand. Therefore, $s^*_i(p(x)) = \min \left\{ x - s^*_j(p(x)), k_i \right\}$, with $i \neq j$, represents the quantity firm $i$ supplies in equilibrium when demand is $x$. Now, if $s^*_i(p)$ and $s^*_j(p)$ are continuous and strictly increasing ($p > p_0$) equation (4) or (5) and $s^*_j(p)$ define $s^*_i(p)$. It is easy to see that when $x - s^*_j(p(x)) = h_i$, the only price that satisfy the FOCs is $p(x) = c_i(h_i)$.

Now for $p < p_0$ at least one firm is offering zero quantity in equilibrium. Hence, there are two possible cases $s^*_i(p_0) = 0$, which implies $s^*_i(p) = 0$ for all $p < p_0$, and $s^*_i(p_0) > 0$, which means firm $i$’s residual demand equals the min $\{ x, k_i \}$ and therefore it is inelastic at every $p < p_0$. If $p_0 < c_i(h_i)$, then $s^*_i(p_0) < h_i$. When $0 < x < s^*_i(p_0)$, firm $i$’s residual demand is lower than the quantity hedged by its forward sales and it is inelastic, hence $\frac{\partial \pi^h_i(x)}{\partial p} < 0$ at every $p < p_0$ and for every $0 < x < s^*_i(p_0)$, where $\pi^h_i(x)$ is firm $i$’s ex-post profit. Therefore, $p(x) = 0 \ \forall x < s^*_i(p_0)$; which means, $s^*_i(p) = s^*_i(p_0) \ \forall p < p_0$.

When $c_i(h_i) \leq p_0$, and $x < h_i$, $\frac{\partial \pi^h_i(x)}{\partial p} < 0$ at every $p < c_i(h_i)$, for the same reasons explained above, then $p(x) = 0$. However, when $h_i < x < s^*_i(p_0)$, firm $i$’s residual demand is higher than its contract holdings and also inelastic at any price below $p_0$, hence $\frac{\partial \pi^h_i(x)}{\partial p} > 0$ for all prices in that range, and $p(x) = p_0$. Therefore, $s^*_i(p) = h_i \ \forall p < p_0$. \hfill \blacksquare

**Equilibrium supply functions.** Let’s define $\tilde{s}_i(p) = s_i(p) - h_i \ \forall i$, then $\tilde{s}^*_i(p) = s^*_i(p)$.  

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When marginal costs are constant and symmetric, equations (4) and (5) become:

\[ \hat{s}_2'(p(x)) = \frac{\hat{s}_1(p(x))}{p(x) - c} \]  
\[ \hat{s}_1'(p(x)) = \frac{\hat{s}_2(p(x))}{p(x) - c} \]  

If \( \hat{s}_i^t(p) \) represents the solution to the previous system, then \( \hat{s}_1'(p) = \hat{s}_2'(p) \forall p \). Let’s assume without lost of generality that \( \hat{s}_1'(p) > \hat{s}_2'(p) \forall p \). Since we know that \( \hat{s}_1^t(c) = \hat{s}_2^t(c) = 0 \), the previous inequality implies \( \hat{s}_1'(p) > \hat{s}_2'(p) \forall p > c \). However, this contradicts equations (A.7) and (A.8) since \( \hat{s}_1'(p) > \hat{s}_2'(p) \iff \hat{s}_1'(p) < \hat{s}_2'(p) \forall p > c \). Therefore, \( \hat{s}_1'(p) = \hat{s}_2'(p) \) and \( \hat{s}_1'(p) = \hat{s}_2'(p) \forall p \).

Now, the solution to the differential equation \( \hat{s}'(p) = \frac{\hat{s}(p)}{p - c} \) is \( \hat{s}(p) = (p - c) \). Since \( \hat{s}_i(p) = s_i(p) - h_i \forall i \), \( s_i(p) = h_i - \beta c + \beta p \), which can be written as \( s_i(p) = \alpha_i + \beta p \), with \( \alpha_i = h_i - \beta c \).

We know that \( \lim_{p \to \bar{p}} s_i(p) \leq k_i \forall i \), hence \( \beta (\bar{p} - c) \leq \max \{0, k_i - h_i\} \forall i \). Moreover, at least the supply function for one of the firms is continuous at the price cap in equilibrium. Therefore, \( \beta = \frac{ka_m}{\bar{p} - c} \) where \( ka_m = \min \{ka_1, ka_2\} \), and \( ka_i = \max \{0, k_i - h_i\} \). □

**Proof of theorem 1.** Equilibrium spot profits depend on the demand realization, the forward positions and installed capacities. There are six different cases for the expected profits depending on the pair of forward sales.

**Case (a)** \( ka_i \leq ka_j \), \( h_i \leq \beta c \) and \( h_i \leq h_j \Rightarrow \bar{S} = h_j - h_i \), \( \bar{S} = 2k_j - h_j + h_i \)

\[ \frac{\partial \Pi_i^a}{\partial h_i} = -\frac{h_i}{2\beta} \int_{\bar{S}}^{\bar{S}} dF(x) \]  

\( \frac{\partial \Pi_i^a}{\partial h_i} \) is strictly negative unless \( h_i = 0 \), when it becomes zero.
Case (b) \( k_{ai} \geq k_{aj}, h_i > h_j \) and \( h_j \leq \beta c \Rightarrow S = h_i - h_j, \overline{S} = 2k_j - h_j + h_i \)

\[
\frac{\partial \Pi_i^b}{\partial h_i} = -f(S)p_0S - \frac{h_i}{2\beta} \int_S^\infty dF(x) \quad (A.10)
\]

\( \frac{\partial \Pi_i^b}{\partial h_i} \) is also strictly negative unless \( h_i = h_j = 0 \).

Case (c) \( k_{ai} \geq k_{aj}, h_i > \beta c \) and \( h_j > \beta c \Rightarrow S = \alpha_i + \alpha_j = h_i + h_j - 2\beta c, \overline{S} = 2k_j - h_j + h_i \)

\[
\frac{\partial \Pi_i^c}{\partial h_i} = -\frac{c\alpha_j}{(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2)^2} \int_0^\infty x dF(x) - \frac{h_i}{2\beta} \int_S^\infty dF(x) \quad (A.11)
\]

In this case \( \frac{\partial \Pi_i^c}{\partial h_i} < 0 \), since \( \alpha_j = h_j - \beta c \) and this is strictly positive by assumption.

Case (d) \( k_{ai} < k_{aj}, h_i \leq \beta c \) and \( h_i \leq h_j \Rightarrow S = h_j - h_i, \overline{S} = K - (k_{aj} - k_{ai}) = 2k_i - h_i + h_j \)

\[
\frac{\partial \Pi_i^d}{\partial h_i} = -\frac{h_i}{2\beta} \int_S^\infty dF(x) + \frac{1}{4\beta} \int_S^\infty (x - h_j)^2 - h_i^2 \frac{k_i - h_i}{dF(x)} \quad (A.12)
\]

Case (e) \( k_{ai} < k_{aj}, h_i > h_j \) and \( h_i \leq \beta c \Rightarrow S = h_i - h_j, \overline{S} = 2k_i - h_i + h_j \)

\[
\frac{\partial \Pi_i^e}{\partial h_i} = -cSf(S) - \frac{h_i}{2\beta} \int_S^\infty dF(x) + \frac{1}{4\beta} \int_S^\infty (x - h_j)^2 - h_i^2 \frac{k_i - h_i}{dF(x)} \quad (A.13)
\]

Case (f) \( k_{ai} < k_{aj}, h_i > \beta c \) and \( h_j > \beta c \Rightarrow S = \alpha_i + \alpha_j = h_i + h_j - 2\beta c, \overline{S} = 2k_i - h_i + h_j \)

\[
\frac{\partial \Pi_i^f}{\partial h_i} = -\frac{cph_j + c^2 k_i}{(p - c)S^2} \int_0^\infty x dF(x) - \frac{h_i}{2\beta} \int_S^\infty dF(x) + \frac{1}{4\beta} \int_S^\infty (x - h_j)^2 - h_i^2 \frac{k_i - h_i}{dF(x)} \quad (A.14)
\]

Define \( \lambda_i(h_j) = k_i - k_j + h_j \) as the value of \( h_i \) such that \( k_{ai} = k_{aj} \). The derivative of \( \Pi_i(h_i, h_j) \) with respect to \( h_i \) does not exists at \( h_i = \lambda_i(h_j) \), since \( \lim_{h_i \to \lambda_i(h_j)^-} \frac{\partial \Pi_i(h_i, h_j)}{\partial h_i} < \lim_{h_i \to \lambda_i(h_j)^+} \frac{\partial \Pi_i(h_i, h_j)}{\partial h_i} \). When firm \( i \) is the relatively less aggressive firm \( (k_{ai} > k_{aj}) \), the optimal choice for firm \( i \) is to stay out of the forward market at date 0, as (A.9), (A.10) and
(A.11) are strictly negative at every \( h_i \in (0, \lambda_i(h_j)) \) and zero at \( h_i = 0 \).

Let’s assume \( (h_1^*, h_2^*) \gg 0 \) is the equilibrium of the forward market. Since \( \frac{\partial \Pi_i(h_i, h_j)}{\partial h_i} < 0 \) \( \forall h_j \) as long as \( 0 < h_i < \lambda_i(h_j) \), if firm 1 sells a strictly positive amount at date 0, it has to be that \( h_1^* > \lambda_1(h_2^*) = k_1 - k_2 + h_2^* \), which is the same as \( h_2^* < k_2 - k_1 + h_1^* \). But this contradicts the assumption that \( h_2^* > 0 \), because this assumption implies \( h_2^* > k_2 - k_1 + h_1^* \). Therefore, \( (h_1^*, h_2^*) \gg 0 \) can not be an equilibrium.

Let’s assume without lost of generality that \( k_1 > k_2 \). Now, \( \lambda_1(h_2) > 0 \) \( \forall h_2 \), which means there is always an \( h_1 \) at which firm 1 will be the less aggressive firm. Therefore, \( \frac{\partial \Pi_1(0, h_2)}{\partial h_1} = 0 \) \( \forall h_2 \), since when firm 1 does not sell forwards it is always the less aggressive firm (\( ka_1 > ka_2 \)). In addition, \( \lambda_2(0) < 0 \), hence, firm 2 is the most aggressive at \( h = (0, 0) \) and \( \frac{\partial \Pi_2(0, 0)}{\partial h_2} = \frac{1}{4S} \int_{S}^{\infty} \frac{\hat{S}^2}{k_2^2} dF(x) > 0 \). Therefore, no firm selling forwards at date 0 is not an equilibrium. If \( k_1 = k_2 \), both firms will have the incentive to sell forwards when its competitor does not sell.

If \( h_i \) tends to \( k_i \), the relevant cases to focus on are: (c) when \( h_j = k_j \), (e) when \( h_j = 0 \), and (f) when \( h_j < k_j \). In the three cases the \( \lim_{h_i \to k_i} \frac{\partial \Pi_i(h_i, h_j)}{\partial h_i} < 0 \), as long as \( c > 0 \).

Also, \( \frac{\partial \Pi_i(h_i, h_j)}{\partial h_i} = 0 \) when \( h_i > k_i \), because selling more than its capacity does not have any impact on the spot market, firm \( i \) is already offering every unit at a price of zero and it can not be more aggressive than that. Hence, no firm hedges its entire capacity.

Therefore, in every possible pure-strategy equilibrium of the forward market, only one firm sells forward, but less than its installed capacity. ■

**Proof of theorem 2.** Theorem 1 showed the only possible equilibria are those where \( 0 < h_i^* < k_i \) and \( h_j^* = 0 \). This proof will be divided in two parts. First, it will be shown that \( h_i^* = \frac{2(\pi - c)}{2\pi + c} k_i \) is the best response to \( h_j^* = 0 \). Then, it will be shown that \( h_j^* = 0 \) is the best response to \( h_i^* = \frac{2(\pi - c)}{2\pi + c} k_i \).

If \( k_i \leq k_j \) and \( h_j = 0 \), \( ka_i \) is certainly smaller than \( ka_j \); then \( \Pi_i(h_i, 0) \) is a continuously differentiable function for all \( h_i \) in \((0, k_i)\). This corresponds to case (e) in the proof of
theorem 1, hence \( h_i^* \) is defined by:

\[
-cSf(S) - \frac{h_i}{2\beta} \int_S^S dF(x) + \frac{1}{4\beta} \int_S^S \frac{(x)^2 - h_i^2}{k_i - h_i} dF(x) = 0
\]  

(A.15)

where the left hand side is \( \frac{\partial \Pi_i}{\partial h_i} \) from equation (A.13). If \( x \sim U[0,M] \), then the F.O.C. becomes:

\[
- \frac{2\overline{p}}{3} + c \frac{2}{3} (\overline{p} - c) k_i = 0
\]  

(A.16)

and,

\[
h_i^* = \frac{2(\overline{p} - c)}{2\overline{p} + c} k_i
\]  

(A.17)

When \( k_i > k_j \) and \( h_j = 0 \), \( ka_i \) can be either smaller or larger than \( ka_j \). Therefore, \( \Pi_i (h_i, 0) \) is not continuously differentiable. If \( h_i = 0 \), it is case (a) in the proof of theorem 1, \( \Pi_i (h_i, 0) = \Pi_i^a (h_i, 0) \). When \( h_i \in (0, \lambda_i (0)) \), it is case (b), \( \Pi_i (h_i, 0) = \Pi_i^b (h_i, 0) \); while if \( h_i \in (\lambda_i (0), k_i) \), it is case (e), with \( \Pi_i (h_i, 0) = \Pi_i^e (h_i, 0) \). Clearly, \( \Pi_i^a (0, 0) > \Pi_i^b (h_i, 0) \). Therefore, for \( h_i^* = \frac{2(\overline{p} - c)}{2\overline{p} + c} k_i \) to be firm \( i \)'s best response to \( h_j = 0 \), it has to be that \( \max_{h_i} \Pi_i^e (h_i, 0) \) is not smaller than \( \Pi_i^a (0, 0) \). Since \( k_i > k_j \), then:

\[
\Pi_i^a (0, 0) = \frac{(\overline{p} - c)}{M} \left[ \left( \frac{k_i^2}{2} + \frac{k_j^2}{6} \right) + (M - k_i - k_j) k_i \right]
\]  

(A.18)

and

\[
\Pi_i^e (h_i^*, 0) = - \frac{c h_i^*}{2M} - \frac{(\overline{p} - c)}{M} \left[ \frac{(k_i - h_i^*)}{3} - k_i k_j - (M - k_i - k_j) k_i \right]
\]  

(A.19)

Now, subtracting both expressions, we have:

\[
\Pi_i^e (h_i^*, 0) - \Pi_i^a (0, 0) = - \frac{(\overline{p} - c)}{M} \left[ \left( \frac{k_i^2}{2} + \frac{k_j^2}{6} \right) - k_i k_j + \frac{(k_i - h_i^*)}{3} \right] - \frac{c h_i^*}{2M}
\]  

(A.20)

plugging \( h_i^* \), defining \( k_i = k_j + \gamma \), and arranging terms:

\[
\Pi_i^e (h_i^*, 0) - \Pi_i^a (0, 0) = \frac{2\overline{p} + 3c}{2(2\overline{p} + c) M} \left[ -\gamma^2 - \gamma \left( \frac{4ck_j}{2\overline{p} + 3c} \right) + \frac{4}{3} k_j^2 \left( \frac{\overline{p} - c}{2\overline{p} + 3c} \right) \right]
\]  

(A.21)
Replacing \( c \) by \( \delta \bar{p} \), (A.21) becomes:

\[
\Pi_i^c (h_i^*, 0) - \Pi_i^c (0, 0) = \frac{2 + 3\delta}{2 (2 + \delta) M} \left[ -\gamma^2 - \gamma \left( \frac{4\delta k_j}{2 + 3\delta} \right) + \frac{4}{3} k_j^2 \left( \frac{1 - \delta}{2 + 3\delta} \right) \right] \tag{A.22}
\]

Define \( \tilde{\gamma} \) as the value of \( \gamma \) such that \( \Pi_i^c (0, 0) - \Pi_i^c (h_i^*, 0) = 0 \). Hence, \( h_i^* = \frac{2(\bar{p} - c)}{2\bar{p} + c} k_i \) can be firm \( i \)'s best response to \( h_j = 0 \) only if \( k_i - k_j < \tilde{\gamma} \). Now, for \( h_i^* \) to be firm \( i \)'s best response to \( h_j = 0 \), \( h_i^* \) has to be an interior solution, \( h_i^* \in (\lambda_i (0), k_i) \), where \( \lambda_i (0) = k_i - k_j \). If \( \gamma \) were equal to \( h_i^* \), it can be shown that equation (A.21) would be negative. Therefore, \( \tilde{\gamma} \) is smaller than \( h_i^* \); which means \( h_i^* \) is firm \( i \)'s best response to \( h_j = 0 \), if \( k_i - k_j \leq \tilde{\gamma} \). Consequently, if \( k_1 > k_2 \) and \( k_1 - k_2 > \tilde{\gamma} \), there is no equilibrium where the large firm 1 sells forward.

The next step is to find conditions for \( h_j = 0 \) to be firm \( j \)'s best response to \( h_i^* \). When \( \bar{p}a_i < kaj \), \( h_j = 0 \) is the optimal choice for firm \( j \), since \( \frac{\partial \Pi_j (h_i^*, h_j)}{\partial h_j} \bigg|_{h_j = k_j} < 0 \) for all \( h_j > 0 \) and \( \frac{\partial \Pi_j (h_i^*, h_j)}{\partial h_j} \bigg|_{h_j = \lambda_j (h_i^*)} = 0 \). The expected profit function is not differentiable, but continuous at \( \lambda_j (h_i^*) \); and it is also concave for \( h_j \) in \( (0, \lambda_j (h_i^*)) \) and \( h_j \) in \( (\lambda_j (h_i^*), k_j) \). Hence, if the \( \lim_{h_j \to \lambda_j (h_i^*)} \frac{\partial \Pi_j (h_i^*, h_j)}{\partial h_j} \) is non-positive for cases (d), (e) and (f), then \( h_j = 0 \) is firm \( j \)'s best response to \( h_i^* \).

\[
\lim_{h_j \to \lambda_j (h_i^*)^+} \frac{\partial \Pi_j^c (h_i^*, h_j)}{\partial h_j} = \frac{\bar{p} - c}{M} k_j \left( 1 - \frac{(2\bar{p} + c)^2 k_j^2}{27c^2 k_j^2} \right)
\]

\[
\lim_{h_j \to \lambda_j (h_i^*)^+} \frac{\partial \Pi_j^c (h_i^*, h_j)}{\partial h_j} = - \left( \frac{4(\bar{p} - c)^3}{9c^2} \right) k_j + \left( c + \frac{16(\bar{p} - c)^4}{27(2\bar{p} + c)c^2} + \frac{2c(\bar{p} - c)}{2\bar{p} + c} \right) k_i
\]

\[
\lim_{h_j \to \lambda_j (h_i^*)^+} \frac{\partial \Pi_j^c (h_i^*, h_j)}{\partial h_j} = \left( \frac{c(\bar{p} - c)}{2\bar{p} + c} + \frac{3c^3(\bar{p} - c) + 2c^4}{(2\bar{p} + c)(\bar{p} - c)^2} \right) k_i - \left( c + \frac{c^2}{2(\bar{p} - c)} \right) k_j
\]

Define \( c = \delta \bar{p} \), where \( \delta \in (0, 1) \). Now, the conditions for the \( \lim_{h_j \to \lambda_j (h_i^*)^+} \frac{\partial \Pi_j^c (h_i^*, h_j)}{\partial h_j} \) to be
non-positive can be expressed as follows:

\[
\frac{(2 + \delta)}{3^{3/2} \delta} \geq \frac{k_i}{k_j} \\
\frac{\left(9\delta^3 + 4(1 - \delta)^3\right)(2 + \delta)}{36\delta^3 - 9\delta^4 + 12 \frac{\delta}{\bar{p}} (1 - \delta)^4} \geq \frac{k_i}{k_j} \\
\frac{(4 - \delta^2)(1 - \delta)\delta}{2(\delta - \delta^2 + 2\delta^3)} \geq \frac{k_i}{k_j}
\]

Where the three conditions are for cases (d), (e) and (f) respectively. For example, if the installed capacities are symmetric, these conditions will be satisfied for any \(\delta\) approximately smaller than 0.48.

**Proof of theorem 3.** Let’s assume without loss of generality that \(k_1 \geq k_2\). When \(x \sim U[0, M]\), \(\Pi_1^0 (0, 0)\) is given by equation (A.18) and

\[
\Pi_2^0 (0, 0) = \frac{(\bar{p} - c)}{M} \left[ \left( k_1 k_2 - \frac{k_2^3}{3} \right) + (M - k_1 - k_2) k_2 \right] \tag{A.23}
\]

There are two possible equilibria, \((\frac{2(\bar{p} - c)}{2\bar{p} + c} k_1, 0)\) and \((0, \frac{2(\bar{p} - c)}{2\bar{p} + c} k_2)\). Let’s start with the second equilibrium, the one where the small firm 2 takes a short forward position. The expected profits for both firms are the following:

\[
\Pi_1^0 (0, h_2^*) = \frac{(\bar{p} - c)}{M} \left[ \frac{k_2^2 + h_2^{*2}}{6} - \frac{k_2 h_2^*}{3} + \frac{k_1^2}{2} + (M - k_1 - k_2) k_1 \right] \tag{A.24}
\]
\[
\Pi_2^0 (0, h_2^*) = -\frac{c h_2^*}{2} + \frac{(\bar{p} - c)}{M} \left[ k_1 k_2 - \frac{(k_2 - h_2^*)^2}{3} + (M - k_1 - k_2) k_2 \right] \tag{A.25}
\]

Defining \(\Pi_T (0, 0) = \Pi_1^0 (0, 0) + \Pi_2^0 (0, 0)\) and \(\Pi_T (0, h_2^*) = \Pi_1^0 (0, h_2^*) + \Pi_2^0 (0, h_2^*)\), replacing \(h_2^*\) and subtracting, we have

\[
\Pi_T (0, h_2^*) - \Pi_T (0, 0) = \frac{2}{3} \frac{(\bar{p} - c)^3}{(2\bar{p} + c)^2} \frac{k_2^3}{M} \tag{A.26}
\]

which is strictly positive for all \(\bar{p} > c\). Since the expected gains from trade are constant,
the expected consumer surplus decreases when there is strategic forward trading and the small firm takes a short position.

When the large firm is the one selling forward in equilibrium, the expected profits are the following:

\[
\Pi_1^* (h_1^*, 0) = -\frac{ch_1^2}{2M} + \frac{(\bar{p} - c)}{M} \left[ k_1 k_2 - \frac{(k_1 - h_1^*)^2}{3} + (M - k_1 - k_2) k_1 \right] \tag{A.27}
\]

\[
\Pi_2^* (h_1^*, 0) = \frac{(\bar{p} - c)}{M} \left[ k_1^2 + \frac{h_1^2}{6} - \frac{k_1 h_1^*}{3} + \frac{k_2^2}{2} + (M - k_1 - k_2) k_2 \right] \tag{A.28}
\]

Defining \( \Pi_T (h_1^*, 0) = \Pi_1^* (h_1^*, 0) + \Pi_2^* (h_1^*, 0) \), we have

\[
\Pi_T (h_1^*, 0) - \Pi_T (0, 0) = \frac{2 (\bar{p} - c)}{3} \left[ k_2^2 - \frac{3(\bar{p} + 2c)}{(2\bar{p} + c)^2} k_1^2 \right] \tag{A.29}
\]

Rearranging and replacing \( k_1 \) by \( k_2 + \gamma \), we obtain

\[
\Pi_T (h_1^*, 0) - \Pi_T (0, 0) = -\frac{2\bar{p} (\bar{p} - c)(\bar{p} + 2c)}{(2\bar{p} + c)^2 M} \left[ \gamma^2 + (2k_2) \gamma - \frac{(\bar{p} - c)^2}{3(\bar{p} + 2c)} k_2^2 \right] \tag{A.30}
\]

Replacing \( c \) by \( \delta \bar{p} \), (A.30) becomes:

\[
\Pi_T (h_1^*, 0) - \Pi_T (0, 0) = -\frac{2(1 - \delta)(1 + 2\delta)}{(2 + \delta)^2 M} \left[ \gamma^2 + (2k_2) \gamma - \frac{(1 - \delta)^2}{3(1 + 2\delta)} k_2^2 \right] \tag{A.31}
\]

Let’s define \( \tilde{\gamma} \) as the value of \( \gamma \) such that strategic forward trading does not impact aggregate expected profits. When \( k_1 - k_2 = \tilde{\gamma} \), the extra expected profits enjoyed by firm 1 exactly offset the loss experienced by firm 2. As it can be seen from equations (A.22) and (A.31), \( \tilde{\gamma} \) is smaller than \( \bar{\gamma} \). Hence, when the equilibrium where the large firm sells forward does exist, the effect of strategic forward trading on expected aggregate profits and therefore, on expected consumer surplus, depends on the asymmetry between firms. When the difference between \( k_1 \) and \( k_2 \) is smaller than \( \tilde{\gamma} \), consumers are worse off, however, when \( k_1 - k_2 \in (\tilde{\gamma}, \bar{\gamma}] \) consumers and the large firm are better off at the expense of the small firm. ■
References


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