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Lessons from California's Homekey Program: Adding Affordable Housing by Buying Market-Rate Apartment Buildings

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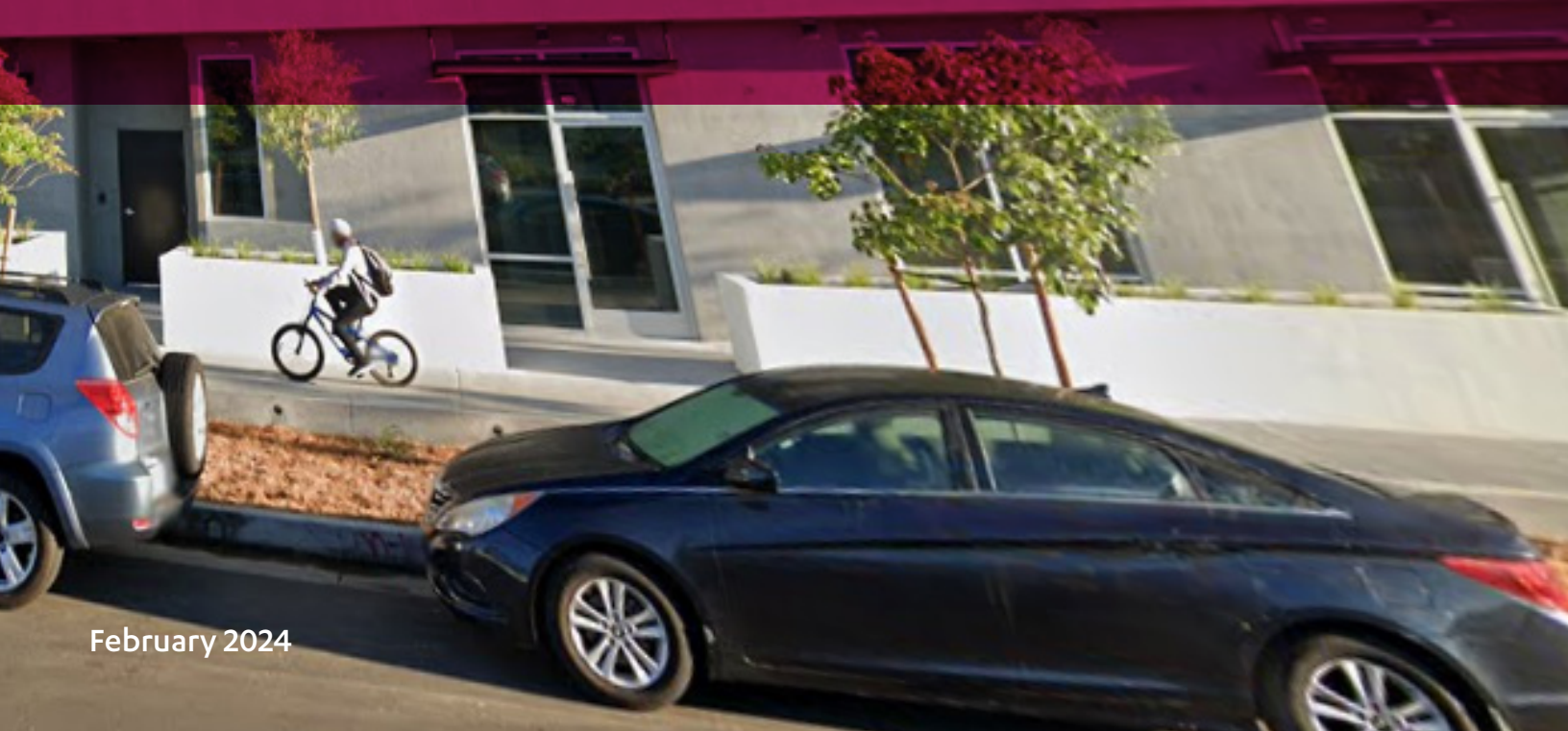
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UCLA Lewis Center
for Regional Policy Studies

LESSONS FROM CALIFORNIA'S HOMEKEY PROGRAM

Adding Affordable Housing by Buying Market-Rate
Apartment Buildings



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Upstream Determinants of Homelessness Research Agenda

This publication is part of a Lewis Center research agenda, funded by a generous grant from the Conrad N. Hilton Foundation, on the upstream factors in housing and land use policy that increase the systemic risk of homelessness in Los Angeles County.

At any given moment, thousands of people in L.A. County experience homelessness, but many thousands more teeter on its brink, living precariously in the region’s unforgiving housing market. Despite considerable public investments in supportive housing and homeless services, the county has thus far failed to reduce homelessness. This lack of progress can partly be attributed to inattention to the upstream determinants of homelessness. A combination of local, state, and federal efforts have helped a growing number of unhoused people return to stable housing, but we have made little headway combatting the conditions that put people at higher risk of homelessness in the first place. We have successfully increased the outflow *from* homelessness, but we have failed — so far — to reduce the inflow *into* homelessness.

Twenty years ago, Brendan O’Flaherty wrote that homelessness is a problem of “wrong person and wrong place”: People become homeless at the intersection of individual and structural risk factors. Thus, while programs helping people back into stable housing are essential, policy must also change the housing market conditions that increase the systemic risk of homelessness. At the city and county level, high rents and low rental vacancies are the strongest predictors of high rates of homelessness, and so our focus is on the policies that make housing scarce and unaffordable. We place a particular emphasis on the production and preservation of housing affordable to lower-income households, people from disadvantaged racial and ethnic groups, and people experiencing homelessness, and on increasing housing opportunities in historically exclusionary communities accessible to good jobs, schools, parks, and other amenities.

We thank the Conrad N. Hilton Foundation for its support. We are grateful to be part of a community committed to ending homelessness in L.A. County, including philanthropies, scholars, public servants, private institutions and businesses, community-based organizations, local advocates, and people with lived experiences of housing instability and homelessness.

Rising development costs motivate new approaches to providing affordable housing

The high cost of development is a major obstacle to increasing the supply of affordable housing in California.

This is especially true for publicly-subsidized projects in the state. Between 2008 and 2019, the inflation-adjusted cost of projects funded by the Low-Income Housing Tax Credit (LIHTC) rose nearly 17% — and costs per square foot ballooned by 55% (Reid, 2020). Since 2019, costs have only increased further. In Los Angeles, the average per-unit cost of supportive housing reached nearly \$600,000 in 2021 (Galperin, 2022), and a growing number of projects now cost \$1 million per unit or more (Dillon and Poston, 2022). These rising costs translate directly into fewer affordable homes for low-income Californians, including many chronically unhoused people.

Rising costs have not been limited to subsidized housing; development costs for unsubsidized projects have also increased. Higher costs are driven by a range of factors including impact fees, material and labor costs, land values, and more recently, high interest rates. Still, subsidized developments frequently face unique burdens in regard to costly labor standards, complex funding sources, and local opposition to the presence of low-income housing (and people), among other challenges. In California, specifically, it is widely understood that building subsidized below-market housing is more expensive than building unsubsidized market-rate homes (Raetz et al., 2020).

Amidst these challenges, [Homekey](#) was established during the COVID-19 pandemic to rapidly expand the supply of affordable housing for people experiencing or at risk of homelessness. By acquiring or converting existing buildings, it has delivered units faster and at lower costs than traditional affordable housing development (Reid et al., 2022). Since 2020, the program has awarded a total of nearly \$2 billion to 116 Homekey projects across the state, funding the acquisition or rehabilitation of approximately 6,900 homes.¹

Perhaps best known for helping local governments purchase underutilized motels and convert them into housing, Homekey also funds the acquisition of new and never-before-occupied market-rate buildings. These buildings are then rented at below-market rates to low-income

¹ Data is from the California HCD Awards Dashboard, last updated 11/30/2022 and retrieved 8/22/2023: <https://www.hcd.ca.gov/grants-and-funding/homekey/awards-dashboard>

affordable units, and may include services or design features that better meet the needs of specific populations. I therefore also ask: what might be lost from a greater emphasis on acquisition relative to subsidized development, and what is the right balance between the two?

I structure the white paper as follows: in the next section, I provide an overview of data sources and project characteristics for Homekey acquisitions and the comparison group of LAHD-financed developments. A cost analysis for both sets of projects follows. Next, I discuss other possible benefits of market-rate housing acquisition, then I address potential drawbacks and study limitations, and conclude with key takeaways and recommendations for increasing acquisitions as part of a more holistic affordable housing strategy.

Data: project and neighborhood characteristics

I began by identifying all Homekey market-rate apartment acquisitions awarded as part of the second round of Homekey applications in a [Housing Authority of the City of Los Angeles memo](#) dated January 27, 2022. I then accessed the building permits issued for each project through [the Los Angeles Department of Building and Safety’s online building records system](#). Building permits provide project-level data on the number of dwelling units and parking spaces, total square footage, and square feet by occupancy group.⁴ The nine Homekey acquisition projects ranged from 27 to 128 units, with an average of 63 units.

I drew the sample of non-Homekey affordable housing developments from the [LAHD Affordable Housing Project List \(2003 to Present\)](#), published by the city. This list provides development costs and other details for each project. I filtered the list to include only new construction funded from 2020 through 2022, excluding outlier projects that reported development costs below \$300,000 per unit.⁵ I also excluded projects in which fewer than half of all units were supportive housing, reflecting the intended use of most Homekey units as supportive housing for individuals who are homeless or at risk of homelessness. I then randomly sorted the filtered sample and documented building permit data for the first 24 projects in the list, including the same project-level data as the Homekey buildings on square footage by occupancy group and parking spaces. These projects ranged from 25 to 98 units, with an average of 56 units.

4 The building permit for a Homekey project is linked here for illustrative purposes: <https://drive.google.com/file/d/1rauYFSGSVYP59GAZUVO666fEp20KXY57/view?usp=sharing>

5 Nineteen of these projects were identified in the LAHD affordable housing project list, with reported development costs ranging from \$0 to \$204,156 per unit. Later investigation of the 10 highest-cost projects revealed actual development costs ranging from \$497,000 to \$678,000 per unit, and a weighted average of \$605,000 per unit.

their buildings to non-residential uses, such as commercial space, community rooms, or social service offices.

I also investigated neighborhood characteristics with data from the 2017–2021 American Community Survey to confirm that differences in project costs could not be explained by differences in neighborhood socioeconomic or demographic profiles. For example, if LAHD-financed developments are systematically built in higher-income neighborhoods than Homekey acquisitions, then higher LAHD development costs could be explained by higher land values. Similarly, communities where a larger share of residents are homeowners or non-Hispanic white might organize more effectively against development in their neighborhoods (Been et al., 2014; Gabbe, 2018).

Table 2 shows that neighborhoods with market-rate Homekey acquisitions have similar characteristics to those where LAHD-financed projects were developed. Neighborhood median and average household incomes are similar for both groups,⁸ as are median and average gross rents. The median share of non-Hispanic white households is higher in Homekey neighborhoods than LAHD development neighborhoods, but the average across both remains the same. The share of households who own their homes is higher in Homekey neighborhoods. That said, the non-Hispanic white and homeowner population shares are very low for both groups of neighborhoods.

Table 2.
Neighborhood characteristics of Homekey acquisitions and LAHD-financed developments.

	Homekey Acquisitions		LAHD-Financed Developments	
	Median	Average	Median	Average
Household income	\$53,523	\$53,137	\$56,130	\$53,861
Gross rent	\$1,437	\$1,415	\$1,377	\$1,387
Share non-Hispanic white	19%	22%	13%	22%
Share homeowners	12%	18%	8%	12%

⁸ Median values are determined by taking the median of census tract-level medians for each neighborhood characteristic. Averages are also calculated because these values do not represent the true median of all households for either group; they are an approximation.

the 23 projects that received LIHTC funding, the largest reserve was \$773,000, representing 3% of TDC. The development cost reported by LAHD was used for the one non-LIHTC project. In email communications, HACLA staff shared the portion of Homekey acquisition budgets allocated to operating and lease-up reserves, with total reserve costs ranging from \$303,000 to \$563,000. I did not deduct these reserve costs from the Homekey budgets for the purposes of this analysis, in part because it was not clear how these costs align with the budget categories in TCAC applications.

Overall, **per-unit costs are much lower for Homekey acquisitions than LAHD-financed developments** (Table 3). On average, Homekey projects cost \$446,800 per unit, compared to \$556,100 per unit for subsidized developments, a 20% difference. At these costs, \$1 billion of funding can support the acquisition of either 2,238 affordable units or the ground-up development of 1,798 affordable units.

In addition to costs per dwelling unit, I also evaluated costs per square foot to confirm that differences in building or unit sizes cannot explain the lower cost of Homekey acquisitions. Average cost savings for Homekey projects are larger per square foot (psf) than per dwelling unit. Using the more expansive zoning code-defined measure of building size (see footnote 6), Homekey projects cost 21% less per square foot on average compared to LAHD-financed projects. A smaller share of building space is devoted to dwelling units in LAHD-financed developments, and thus Homekey performance improves when costs are divided by dwelling unit square footage (i.e., R2 occupancy group; see footnote 7), saving 28% compared to LAHD-financed developments.

Table 3.
Cost comparison of Homekey acquisitions and LAHD-financed developments.

	Homekey Acquisitions	LAHD-Financed Developments	Homekey Cost Savings
Average cost per dwelling unit	\$446,800	\$556,100	20%
Minimum cost per unit	\$386,719	\$376,135	(3%)
Maximum cost per unit	\$546,931	\$697,010	22%
Average cost per square foot (ZC)	\$604	\$768	21%
Minimum cost per square foot (ZC)	\$391	\$418	6%
Maximum cost per square foot (ZC)	\$975	\$1,111	12%
Average cost per square foot (R2)	\$595	\$824	28%

exempt from or subject to less stringent requirements than those imposed on publicly-funded developments, such as LEED sustainability certifications. They may also face less delay or require less bargaining with local power brokers if market-rate or mixed-income projects are generally subject to less neighborhood opposition than 100% affordable housing projects. Alternatively, policies in the City of Los Angeles favoring 100% affordable projects, including the Transit Oriented Communities incentive program and Mayor Karen Bass’s Executive Directive 1, may give subsidized developments a competitive edge in entitlement and permitting processes.

One factor that does *not* appear to explain the disparity in project costs is the fact that subsidized developments often include non-revenue-generating, community-serving spaces such as computer labs or office space for on-site services. Approximately 4% of total building area in LAHD-financed developments was dedicated to B and A-3 occupancy group uses, which may be used for offices and community rooms, respectively. While this is significantly more than the 0.2% of building area linked to these uses in the Homekey projects, it is not enough to account for a cost differential of 20% per dwelling unit. Furthermore, only 14 of 24 LAHD-financed projects included any B or A-3 occupancy group space, and the average per-unit cost of these 14 projects was nearly equal to the full sample of LAHD projects (\$558,800 vs. \$556,100). HACLA should not need to invest heavily into adapting its acquisitions if these spaces are not essential in all purpose-built supportive and affordable housing developments. Acquisitions and ground-up subsidized developments may also simply be used to meet different community needs.

One area where acquisition costs may be higher is fees. Purpose-built affordable housing projects have some fees reduced or waived (such as [park fees](#), which cost upward of \$8,200 per unit in 2023). Because development fees are usually paid before construction begins, such waivers may be unavailable to market-rate or mixed-income developments, even if they are eventually acquired by a public agency and used as low-income housing. Further research is needed to better understand how acquisitions reduce costs relative to subsidized developments and what trade-offs may be involved.

Instead of paying what it costs to *build* a housing development, regardless of its value, acquisition allows public agencies to pay what projects are actually *worth*.

rate rents or require additional public funding to maintain below-market rents. As a result, existing affordable units are lost or new units are foregone. In contrast, a public agency can maintain affordability indefinitely, not giving up ownership of valuable land to private entities. Public ownership doesn't mean that preserving affordability is free of cost — buildings may still require subsidies to fund rehabilitation in later years, for example — but it does make it less likely that the affordability provisions will fully and permanently expire.

More abstractly, but importantly, these acquisitions draw attention to the fuzzy line separating “luxury” market-rate housing from affordable below-market housing. While some below-market-rate units are produced without public funding — e.g., via [density bonus incentives](#) — most are built using government subsidies. Building homes is expensive, and producing enough affordable housing to meet the needs of unhoused and low income people requires vast public subsidies. This remains true whether subsidies are introduced before or after construction, and whether developers operate as profit-seeking or non-for-profit entities.

Evidence shows that increased market-rate production improves affordability for all income levels (Asquith et al., 2023; Been et al., 2023; Saks, 2008). Despite this, some view new market-rate homes as a missed opportunity for affordable units, at best, or as a driver of higher rents and displacement at worst. The relatively high rents of market-rate units are viewed as an immutable consequence of being built for profit, or for higher-income residents. This analysis shows that acquiring market-rate housing is not inherently more expensive than building below-market homes. If anything, the opposite is true. From an affordability perspective, the most salient difference between the two is that below-market homes are usually publicly subsidized and market-rate homes are not. **Homekey illustrates how subsidies can be used to lower the price of housing at any time in its lifecycle.** Compared to below-market housing, the *rent paid by tenants* of market-rate housing

A related question is whether increased spending on housing acquisitions would drive up purchase prices and erode the cost savings of this approach. On the one hand, expanding Homekey to acquire 5,000 units per year (e.g.) rather than 500 would likely increase competition, potentially raising the cost of acquisition for public and private entities alike. On the other hand, the presence of a well-funded acquisition program could drive additional production by providing a clear financial exit for efficient developers — in the case of Los Angeles, helping meet its ambitious target of 450,000 new homes by 2029. Going further, cities could guarantee acquisition of projects that meet certain criteria, lowering financing costs by reducing borrower risk.

Another possible drawback is that by ceding construction to privately-financed developers, the public sector loses some influence over where exactly affordable housing is built. This concern is particularly salient as California lawmakers increase their oversight of local governments’ housing plans in efforts to affirmatively further fair housing (Monkkonen et al., 2023). But while acquisition of market-rate housing and conversion to below-market rents *could* reinforce patterns of segregation if done poorly, it may also break down those patterns more efficiently than affordable housing development alone. At least three characteristics give acquisition a potential advantage for affirmatively furthering fair housing: the lower cost of acquired units, the much larger number of privately-owned market-rate buildings compared to subsidized developments, and the ability to purchase older buildings where local regulations restrict future development.

Finally, a major obstacle is that acquisitions — especially of new or soon-to-be-completed housing — are not as integrated into affordable housing finance policies and programs as ground-up development or rehabilitation of older buildings. These latter project types can receive funding from the LIHTC program, which allows states and local governments to leverage their own investments with matching funds from the federal government. LIHTC funds roughly 30% of total development costs for developers receiving 4% credits, or around 70% using 9% credits (which are fewer in number and much more competitive). Thus, while Homekey acquisitions may cost 80% as much per unit as LAHD-financed developments, the cost *to the city of Los Angeles and the state of California* will often be greater for Homekey-style acquisitions. **The fact that affordable housing policy discourages cost-saving innovations like Homekey merits attention,** and federal officials in particular should explore LIHTC reforms to better accommodate the acquisition of new (and newer) buildings.

3. Lower costs for Homekey acquisitions compared to LAHD-financed developments are not explained by social service cost capitalization, nor by systemic differences in unit size, building location, or space dedicated to non-revenue-generating uses.

Detailed investigation of project budgets revealed that social service cost reserves accounted for no more than 3% of total development cost in any of the sampled subsidized projects.

The average number of units and total building square footage per unit (including non-residential space) are similar across Homekey acquisitions and LAHD-financed developments, but the average Homekey dwelling unit is somewhat larger. Buildings were also distributed across similar neighborhoods, with comparable average and median incomes. Notably, rents and shares of non-Hispanic white and homeowner households were slightly higher in Homekey acquisition neighborhoods. Lower costs for Homekey acquisitions are not explained by these modest differences, and may even indicate that Homekey acquisitions took place in slightly more desirable or higher-opportunity neighborhoods.

Approximately 4.0% of total building area in LAHD-financed developments was dedicated to B and A-3 occupancy group uses, which may be used for offices providing supportive services and community rooms, respectively. Only 0.2% of building area was linked to these uses in the Homekey projects, but this disparity cannot explain the cost differential between acquisitions and subsidized developments. Furthermore, only 14 out of 24 LAHD-financed projects included any B or A-3 occupancy group space, indicating that these uses are not essential in all affordable or supportive housing contexts, though they are certainly vital in many cases.

4. Reduced financing complexity and fewer non-essential project requirements likely play a role in the lower cost of Homekey acquisitions. Flexibility in the use of public funds will be critical to the success of future acquisition efforts.

Typically, subsidized developments require a larger number of funding sources than unsubsidized projects, and the disparity has widened as development costs rise (Kneebone and Reid, 2021). Managing the different timelines and requirements of multiple funding sources can delay projects and increase development costs. While there are many state and local efforts intended to streamline financing for affordable housing development, acquisition likely remains the simpler approach for increasing the stock of below-market homes.

Future acquisition programs should utilize the Homekey model, in which a pool of funds is secured and then deployed over time to acquire a portfolio of buildings, balancing priorities

7. Acquisition is not a substitute for increased housing production.

Acquiring market-rate apartments is a useful strategy for increasing the stock of affordable below-market housing, but *building* housing is critical for stabilizing rents and home prices across the housing market, for people at all income levels, including lower-income households. One important benefit of subsidized housing production is that it adds to the overall housing stock — though on a less than one-for-one basis due to crowd-out of unsubsidized housing development (Eriksen and Rosenthal, 2010). Acquisition does not add to the housing stock, and must therefore be accompanied by targeted efforts to increase market-rate housing production.

8. Acquisition is also not a substitute for housing built to meet the needs of specific populations.

Although only slightly more than half of LAHD-financed developments include B or A-3 occupancy group uses, these spaces remain essential for certain populations served by supportive or affordable housing. Further, while this analysis cannot account for unit design, some apartments must be designed to be accessible to people with disabilities, and this is a use case in which subsidized housing developers excel. Even if acquired properties can be renovated to accommodate these needs, doing so may not be the most cost-effective solution.

9. The state of California should expand funding for acquisition of new market-rate units and conversion to deed-restricted affordable housing, providing technical assistance to small and mid-sized housing authorities that are interested in pursuing the model.

Unlike other affordable housing programs like the Low Income Housing Tax Credit and Housing Choice vouchers, there is no permanent source of funding for acquiring new multifamily buildings. Building on the success of the Homekey program, California should explore establishing a more permanent program with dedicated funding. Considering that other local housing authorities do not have the same staffing levels or resources as Los Angeles, the state should provide technical assistance to smaller housing authorities to ensure the public’s interests are fairly represented in acquisition deals.

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Table A2. (continued)
LAHD-financed developments.

Address	Units	Average unit size (sq. ft.)	Total cost	Cost per unit	Cost per sq. ft. (ZC)
11408 S Central Ave	64	853	\$39,900,980	\$623,453	\$696
1035 S Berendo St	42	1,016	\$26,003,817	\$619,139	\$671
6940 N Owensmouth Ave	80	1,513	\$49,269,595	\$615,870	\$622
1141 S Crenshaw Blvd	43	689	\$26,440,278	\$614,890	\$597
4719 S Normandie Ave	43	578	\$26,130,074	\$607,676	\$1,111
418 N Firmin St	64	731	\$38,372,768	\$599,575	\$804
4200 W Pico Blvd	54	509	\$32,155,802	\$595,478	\$1,072
5050 N Bakman Ave	40	696	\$23,798,875	\$594,972	\$798
316 N Juanita Ave*	53	395	\$28,554,279	\$538,760	\$842
1611 W Montana St	64	672	\$34,368,962	\$537,015	\$775
10243 N Topanga Canyon Blvd	55	414	\$29,501,339	\$536,388	\$1,102
2721 Wilshire Blvd	64	597	\$34,079,355	\$532,490	\$891
12003 S Main St	56	372	\$29,689,856	\$530,176	\$823
6576 S West Blvd	64	812	\$33,648,592	\$525,759	\$647
316 N Juanita Ave*	52	370	\$26,871,012	\$516,750	\$922
1049 1/2 S Harvard Blvd	47	503	\$22,017,881	\$468,466	\$1,058
5138 S Broadway	49	427	\$22,148,687	\$452,014	\$948
16015 W Sherman Way	46	617	\$19,627,749	\$426,690	\$822
6501 S Crenshaw Blvd	98	473	\$40,057,844	\$408,754	\$772
9500 S Compton Ave	25	452	\$9,403,369	\$376,135	\$933

* The two projects at 316 N Juanita Ave are separate buildings developed as part of the Enlightenment Plaza complex in Koreatown.



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