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From the Subprime to the Exotic: Excessive Mortgage Market Risk and Foreclosures

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Results and conclusions: Numbers of subprime, exotic, and zero-down-payment mortgages have all been growing. Where they are spatially concentrated they are linked to rising and geographically concentrated home mortgage foreclosures. I find evidence that subprime lenders achieve greater market penetration in metropolitan areas with less educated residents, and that higher-risk lending is more prevalent where housing prices are high and increasing. I also find that when local housing markets are hot, even high levels of subprime lending are associated with only slightly higher foreclosure filing rates, but foreclosure rates rise quickly when hot markets cool.

Takeaway for practice: Although foreclosures are less likely to be a severe problem in very strong real estate markets, when prices in previously hot markets stagnate or decline, foreclosures can quickly follow. This is a serious concern given recent trends in mortgage financing that have extended credit to more economically vulnerable populations and generally weakening housing markets in many metropolitan areas. These foreclosures tend also to be spatially concentrated within metropolitan areas, particularly stressing housing markets in neighborhoods where the higher-risk products are more prevalent. I recommend that planners: (1) track local lending and foreclosure patterns; (2) promote healthier mortgage markets in vulnerable areas; (3) fund targeted foreclosure prevention and counseling; (4) develop refinancing/restructuring programs; (5) redesign programs to promote sustainable homeownership; (6) get

foreclosure surges on rental and foreclosure regulation

Research

Keywords

mortgage



Introd

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policymakers have historically paid little attention to housing finance. This article examines how changes in mortgage markets since the middle 1990s led to a dramatic widening of the risk spectrum of mortgage products and to problems of increased and geographically concentrated foreclosures.

Though nationally diversified bond and securities markets tolerated high levels of aggregate risk until late 2006, and the problem of excessive risk in U.S. mortgage markets became front-page news only in 2007, by that time many communities around the country had already been dealing with the problems of increasing and concentrated foreclosures for several years. National awareness increased when housing markets in California, Florida, and the Northeast that had been experiencing high rates of appreciation began slowing in 2006, and local foreclosure rates in these places increased dramatically, pushing up national levels of foreclosures. This devalued the securities backed by deteriorating subprime and alternative mortgages. Moreover, as adjustable rate loans with initially low, teaser^{[1](#)} interest rates began resetting to higher levels, many markets that had already reached high levels of foreclosures experienced even greater problems.

This article begins by examining how changes in mortgage markets since the middle 1990s led to huge growth in high-risk loan products. I consider the recent rapid growth of three types of home purchase mortgage products:

1. Subprime mortgages, which have higher interest rates than prime mortgages and often higher fees. They are designed for borrowers with lower credit ratings. Research shows that these loans range from 1% to 10% higher than prime loans. (Green 2007)
2. Exotic mortgages, which include amortization holidays, interest-only loans, and negative amortization loans. These loans are often made at prime rates but have higher fees.
3. Zero-down mortgages, which require no down payment. These loans often include



the down payment as a grant to the homebuyer. A zero-down-payment mortgage may be priced as prime or subprime, and may contain exotic features.

I examine patterns in where these products were sold, and conclude that, particularly where such lending is spatially concentrated, it is linked to rising and geographically concentrated home mortgage foreclosures, with serious negative impacts on neighborhoods and urban areas. This should be of particular concern to planners, as concentrated foreclosures create substantial negative impacts: abandoned property, crime, public safety costs, and reduced property values ([Apgar & Duda, 2005](#); [Immergluck & Smith, 2006](#)). I conclude with what local planners can do to reduce the negative effects of these national trends on their own communities.

Growth in High-Risk Home Purchase Loans

Since the early 1990s, subprime mortgages have grown dramatically. The industry publication Inside Mortgage Finance calculates that subprime lending grew from approximately \$35 billion in 1994 to \$665 billion in 2005 ([Schloemer, Li, Ernst, & Keest, 2006](#)). I focus only on home purchase loans in this article. While much of this growth was in the refinance sector in the earlier years, subprime loans were a substantial share of the home mortgage market in the later years. Subprime loans constituted more than 10 percent of the share of new mortgage originations, and refinancing of subprime loans constituted a substantial share of the refinancing market. The composition of the mortgage market has changed in the past decade, with a substantial share of new originations being purchased by Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac [FHA] has declined. The share of new originations from the refinance market, subprime foreclosures, and FHA purchases has declined.



Metro Lending

The impact of the mortgage market on the economy has been considered in the context of the mortgage market. The impact of the mortgage market on the economy has been considered in the context of the mortgage market.

the growth in subprime purchase lending from 1997 to 2003 in 103 U.S. metropolitan areas with populations of at least 500,000 in 2000, shows that it grew considerably more in some places than others. Many California metropolitan areas, for example, experienced very large increases.

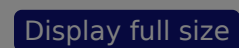
To better understand why the increases were greater in some metropolitan areas, and thereby suggest which factors might be most closely related to a region's mortgage risk profile, I used a regression model to estimate the shares of home purchase loans that were subprime in these metropolitan areas in 2003. I controlled for their shares of home purchase loans that were subprime in 1997, and for the other demographic and housing stock characteristics likely to affect their subprime shares. These include: the size of the median purchase loan, the proportion of buyers who were Black, the proportion of buyers who were Hispanic, the proportion of residents who had at least a college degree (hereafter called educational attainment), the proportion of housing units over 50 years old, the ratio of the FHA loan limit to the median loan amount, the ratio of median borrower income to median loan size, and the unemployment rate.³ I also included 1997 to 2003 changes in median loan size, the racial and ethnic composition of buyers, and the unemployment rate as explanatory variables. These variables generally reflect the factors that are expected to impact loan risk or the demand or supply of subprime versus prime loans. For example, race has been shown to be a significant factor in whether

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Figure 2. Increase in the subprime share of home purchase loans 1997–2003 versus median 1997 loan amounts, for 103 large U.S. metropolitan areas: Source: Author's calculations using HMDA data from [Federal Financial Institutions Examination Council \(2007\)](#).



The growth of the market for private equity was not limited to the United States. In the United Kingdom, the market for private equity was also growing rapidly. In 2001, the market for private equity in the United Kingdom was worth £1.5 billion. By 2005, it had grown to £4.5 billion. This growth was driven by a number of factors, including the increasing number of private equity firms in the United Kingdom, the increasing number of companies being taken private, and the increasing number of companies being sold to private equity firms.

deregulation, the vertical disintegration of the mortgage industry (including the increase in third-party mortgage brokers and increased nonagency securitization⁷ as a primary source of capital), the globalization of capital sources, and the specialization of lenders and investors ([Fishbein & Woodall, 2006](#)). Many of these same forces had previously spurred the growth of the subprime market ([Wyly, Atia, & Hammel, 2004](#)).

The available indicators show strong growth in exotic mortgages, especially from 2001 to 2005. LoanPerformance, Inc. tracks loans sold to third parties other than the GSEs Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac. While this leaves out a sizeable segment of the overall mortgage market, it likely includes a large portion of the growth in exotic loans.

Table 1. Results of model predicting share of 2003 home purchase loans made by subprime lenders in U.S. metropolitan areas with populations over 500,000 in 2000.



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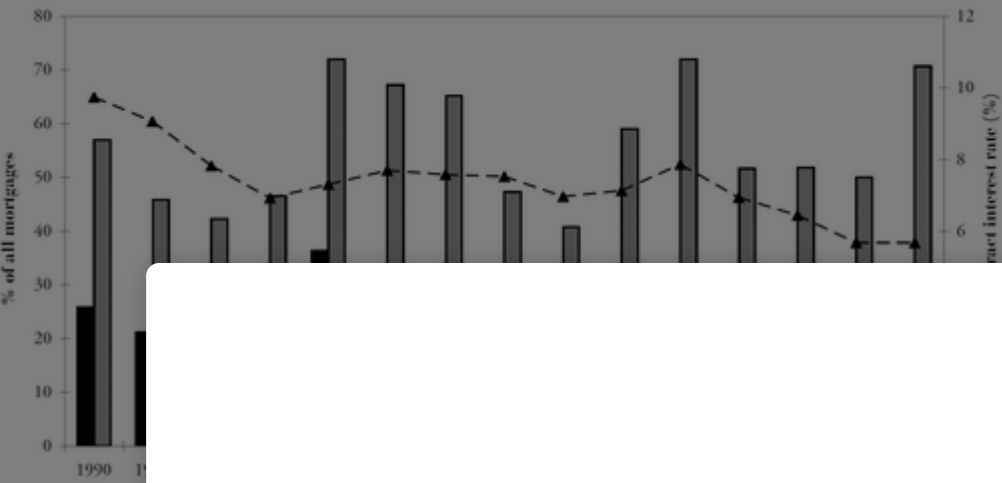
These data show that among tracked loans, those that were interest-only rose from under 5% in 2001 to approximately 35% in 2005 ([LoanPerformance, 2006](#)). Negative amortization loans rose from less than 1% in 2003 to more than 7% by 2005. In California, this figure topped 17% in 2005. LoanPerformance also listed 12 metropolitan areas in which the share of interest-only loans rose from more than 50% in 2001 to more than 75% in 2005.

Many, if not most, of these loans were made by subprime lenders, especially those with adjustable rates. The increase in interest-only loans was particularly high for subprime ARM mortgages, contributing to the increase in ARM loans. The increase in interest-only loans was particularly high for subprime ARM mortgages, contributing to the increase in ARM loans.

The Federal Reserve Bank of New York's study of major mortgage lenders found that subprime lenders (both traditional and nontraditional) held 15% of the shares of home purchase loans in 2005, up from 10% in 2001. The increase in ARM loans was particularly high for subprime ARM mortgages, contributing to the increase in ARM loans.

figure distinguishes between jumbo and non-jumbo loans. Figure 3 shows that the share of mortgages that are ARMs fluctuates widely. Traditionally, as rates for fixed-rate loans fall, the short-term savings that ARMs can provide decline, and fixed-rate loans increase. This was the case from 1990 to 1992. As rates rose from 1998 to 2000, ARMs increased as expected. However, the expected pattern was disrupted thereafter, suggesting that the greater number of ARMs was driven by something other than prevailing fixed interest rates. From 2001 to 2003 interest rates generally fell and ARMs held steady for jumbo loans and increased for non-jumbo mortgages. Then, although rates remained relatively flat, ARMs increased dramatically in 2004, making up 71% of jumbo loans and 31% of non-jumbo loans according to the MIRS data. Even so, these data likely understate ARM growth in later years, especially in the subprime market and for loans with teaser introductory rates.⁸

Figure 3. Percentage of conventional jumbo and non-jumbo mortgages with adjustable rates, 1990–2004: Source: [Federal Housing Finance Board \(2006\)](#).



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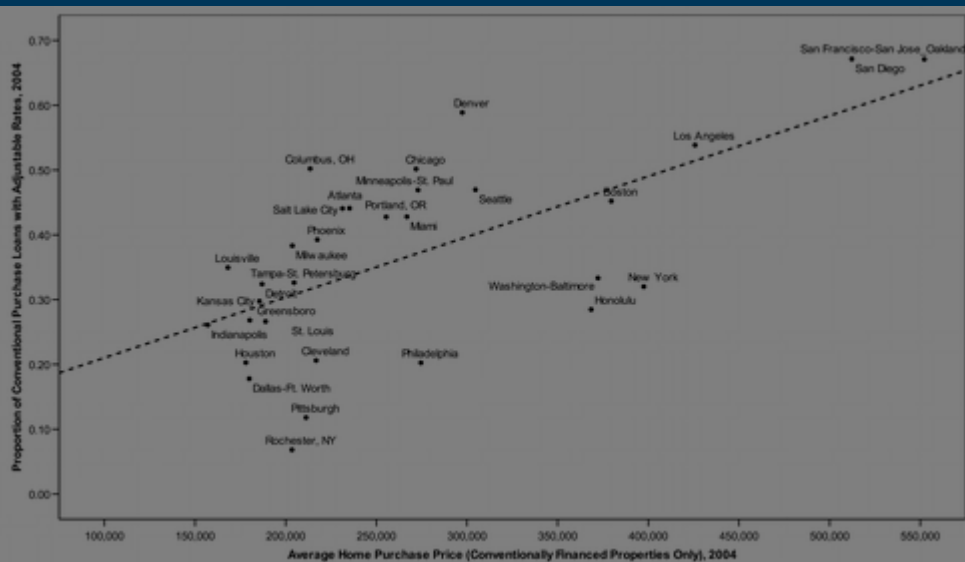
they and/or the investors in their mortgage-backed securities were confident that properties would appreciate sufficiently to cover any losses. Moreover, in higher-priced markets, the profits made off the larger loans were expected to be large enough to compensate for anticipated future losses.

Growing Numbers of Zero-Down-Payment Loans

During much of the 20th century, the standard down-payment requirement for a home purchase loan was 20%. Until the 1990s, down payments below 20% typically required either private mortgage insurance or the use of a government-insured or government-guaranteed loan. Some buyers receive seller-funded down-payment assistance. Public and nonprofit entities sponsor zero-down-payment loan programs to subsidize homeownership. The Veterans Administration introduced a zero-down-payment loan program as early as 1944 ([Government Accountability Office, 2005a](#)). The FHA followed with a program permitting down payments of 5% in 1948 and then 3% in 1957. In the 1970s, the GSEs began purchasing loans on which the homeowner had put as little as 5% down. In 1994, Fannie Mae introduced a 3% down product, and Freddie Mac followed with a similar product in 1998. In 2000, both GSEs began offering products that required no down payment. While both GSEs continue to offer products requiring down payments, the FHA remains the only agency that continues to offer a smaller down payment program. The average loan-to-value ratio for the FHA was 96% in 2000, compared to 93% for Fannie Mae and 92% for Freddie Mac ([Government Accountability Office, 2005a](#)).

Figure 4. The average down payment for a home purchase loan in 2000. Source: [Federal Reserve Bank of New York, 2001](#).





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According to my calculations using microdata from the 1999 American Housing Survey (AHS), only 5% of owner-occupiers purchasing single-family homes in MSAs (metropolitan statistical areas) in 1998 and 1999 indicated “no down payment” when asked what their main source of the down payment was for their house, but the 2005 AHS data show this figure had reached 13.3% for 2004 and 2005 ([U.S. Census Bureau, 1999, 2005](#)). Given that many zero-down-payment programs are aimed at lower-income borrowers, these products are likely to be more concentrated than this in modest-income neighborhoods.

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Although the expanding availability of subprime, exotic, and zero-down-payment loans has undoubtedly brought benefits to some individual homebuyers, for others it has brought severe financial hardship in the form of foreclosure. I will not analyze the benefits and costs to individuals here. Instead, I focus on the social costs of these trends as higher and often geographically concentrated foreclosure rates harm neighborhoods and cities. Subprime lending has been the biggest contributor to foreclosures thus far, though exotic mortgages and zero-down-payment mortgages have played roles as well.

Subprime Mortgages and Foreclosures

A substantial body of research points to widespread problems in the subprime market. There is evidence that minority households are more likely to receive subprime mortgages even after controlling for credit quality, and that abusive lending practices have been concentrated in the subprime sector ([Gruenstein-Bocian et al., 2006](#); [Nichols, Pennington-Cross & Yezer, 2005](#); [U.S. Department of the Treasury & U.S. Department of Housing & Urban Development \[HUD\] 2000](#)). However, my main concern is that subprime mortgages have been associated with large, spatially concentrated increases in foreclosures ([Angar & Duda, 2004](#); [Immergluck & Smith, 2005](#)). For the first three quarters of 2007, foreclosures in the United States were substantially higher than in previous years, with 13% of outstanding mortgages in the United States being foreclosed.

A number of studies have compared the foreclosure rates of subprime loans to prime loans ([Immergluck, 2005](#); [Immergluck et al., 2006](#)). Generally, the studies have found that subprime loans are foreclosed at rates between 10% and 20% higher than prime loans. Foreclosure rates for subprime loans are also higher than for prime loans in areas with a high concentration of subprime loans. For example, [Immergluck et al. \(2006\)](#) found that the foreclosure rate for subprime loans in areas with a high concentration of subprime loans is 15% higher than in areas with a low concentration of subprime loans. This finding is consistent with the idea that subprime loans are more likely to be foreclosed than prime loans, and that the foreclosure rate is higher in areas with a high concentration of subprime loans.

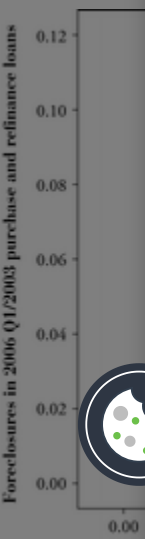
The foreclosure rate of subprime loans has also been worsening. Recent data show that subprime mortgages made in 2006, at the peak of the subprime boom, were likely to go into default and foreclosure substantially sooner than loans made in earlier years ([Standard and Poors, 2007](#)). Industry research suggests that overall subprime mortgage default rates doubled between 2004 and 2006, and that loans originated in 2006 were of substantially higher risk than loans originated in earlier years ([AEW Research, 2007](#)).

The relationship between subprime purchase lending and foreclosure rates depends on the strength of the local housing market. Because homeowners having difficulty paying their loans in hot housing markets can more easily sell or refinance into more affordable mortgages, I expect foreclosure rates to be lower in such markets, and the available data support this. RealtyTrac, Inc. compiles data on foreclosures_12_for 100 large metropolitan areas, the data for 81 of which are comparable to those for the 103 metropolitan areas I analyzed previously. To estimate a foreclosure filing rate in each of these 81 metropolitan areas, I divided first quarter 2006 foreclosure filings from the RealtyTrac report by the number of home purchase and refinance loans originated in the metro area in 2003 as measured by Home Mortgage Disclosure Act (HMDA) data. [Figure 5](#) plots my estimated metropolitan foreclosure filing rates against the shares of home purchase loans made by subprime lenders in the same metropolitan areas in 2003. As predicted, it indicates that when local housing markets are hot, even high



Although foreclosures are rarely a severe problem in hot real estate markets, as prices in these areas stagnate or decline, foreclosures can quickly follow. The accelerating problem of subprime foreclosures in 2007 has demonstrated how very strong housing markets in several large regional housing markets propped up the loan performance of nationally diversified subprime lenders and of the securities backed by their loans. When large parts of the country experienced strong housing price appreciation, subprime borrowers in these markets were able to sell their homes or refinance into new loans if they had trouble meeting their loan payments when their adjustable rates increased. Loan performance in many weaker markets was already fairly poor, but aggregate national losses were not too far from what investors had generally expected. However, when values stalled and foreclosures increased in large markets that had been experiencing very strong price growth, such as Florida, California, and the Northeast, loss rates began to exceed what securitization models had accounted for, and they did so quite rapidly.

Figure 5. Foreclosure filing rates versus subprime lender shares of home purchase loans for 81 large U.S. metropolitan areas: Sources: Foreclosure filing rate calculated by the author using data from [RealtyTrac, Inc. \(2006\)](#) and HMDA data from [Federal Financial Institutions Examination Council \(2007\)](#). Share of home purchase loans that were subprime calculated by the author using HMDA data from [Federal Financial Institutions Examination Council \(2007\)](#).



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[RealtyTrac](#) are much higher than in other metropolitan areas.

Spatially concentrated subprime loans can result in poor outcomes for neighborhoods and local governments. A number of studies have shown a disproportionate share of metropolitan foreclosures and increases in foreclosures in recent years to be in lower-income and minority neighborhoods (for a review, see [Apgar & Duda, 2004](#)). A study of foreclosures in Atlanta found predominantly minority census tracts had foreclosure rates (as measured by foreclosures per mortgaged unit) approximately 12 times those of predominantly White tracts ([Apgar & Duda, 2005](#)). These tracts also had the highest concentrations of subprime mortgages. [Figure 6](#) shows that in Cook County, Illinois,

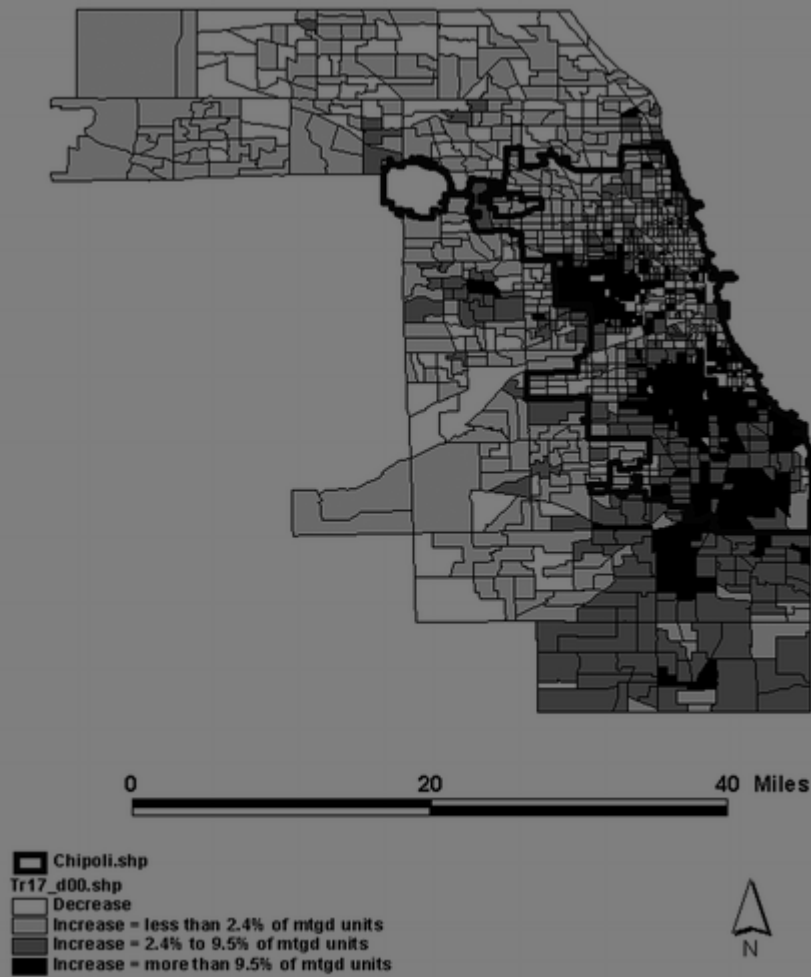
Because many exotic mortgage products involve some version of adjustable interest rates or changing amortization schedules, as well as introductory teaser rates, the risks that borrowers face due to changing mortgage payments can be quite substantial. Although their study looked only at subprime loans, [Schloemer et al. \(2006\)](#) found that, other things equal, loans with adjustable rates are more than twice as likely to default as fixed-rate loans. [Cagan \(2007\)](#) projected that 32% of ARMs with teaser rates and 7% of market-rate ARMs will default due to interest rate resets.¹⁴

Industry analysts have estimated that as much as \$1 trillion in ARMs were subject to resetting interest rates in 2007, up from less than \$400 billion in 2006 and \$100 billion in 2005 ([Frantantoni, 2005](#)). While many of the resets in 2006 and 2007 affected subprime loans, many exotic mortgages have longer initial interest rate periods, meaning that those originated in 2003 through 2005 will reset in 2008 and beyond.

As is the case with subprime loans, one of the key risks for areas with many exotic mortgages is the cooling of hot housing markets. Where exotic mortgages are concentrated in markets likely to lose value, there is a risk of accelerating foreclosures once homeowners can no longer sell or refinance easily. [Cagan \(2007\)](#) found that for ARMs originated in 2006, 23.9% of properties had negative equity (the home's value was less than the mortgage amount), up from only 7.6% in 2004, and compared to only 10.3% of fixed-rate borrowers. Moreover, if prices were to fall by 10%, 48.9% of the adjustable-rate borrowers would have negative equity. Therefore I expect more foreclosures in areas with high concentrations of ARMs than in areas with fewer ARMs.

Figure 6.1 shows the number of foreclosures in the United States that entered the foreclosure process in 2007, 2008, and 2009. The number of foreclosures entered the foreclosure process in 2007 was 1.2 million, in 2008 it was 1.8 million, and in 2009 it was 2.5 million. [Cunningham \(2003\)](#).





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The private mortgage insurer PMI, Inc. has developed a market risk index which is intended to measure the risk of mortgage-backed securities (MBS) over the next two years. The index is based on historical data on mortgage delinquency rates and is designed to provide investors with a more accurate picture of the risk associated with MBS. The index is calculated using a proprietary algorithm that takes into account a variety of factors, including the type of mortgage, the borrower's credit score, and the current market conditions. The index is intended to be used by investors to make more informed decisions about whether to invest in MBS. The index is also intended to be used by mortgage lenders to help them better understand the risk associated with their loans. The index is a valuable tool for investors and lenders alike, and it is expected to become an important part of the mortgage market risk management toolkit.

One type of alternative mortgage is the stated-income loan, in which lenders require little to no documentation to verify borrowers' incomes. This segment of the home purchase loan market grew rapidly from 2000 to 2006, accounting for approximately 18% of all mortgage originations by 2006 ([Bajaj, 2007](#)). There is some evidence many people obtaining such loans claimed incomes that were substantially higher than they actually received. The Mortgage Asset Research Institute, a firm that tracks mortgage fraud, reported that in a sample of 100 stated income loans for which it obtained borrowers' IRS forms, 90% had exaggerated their incomes by 5% or more, and almost 60% had exaggerated their incomes by more than 50% ([Sharick, Omba, Larson, & Croft, 2006](#)).

Zero-Down-Payment Mortgages and Foreclosures

The growth of zero-down-payment mortgages has also had implications for foreclosures. Evidence suggests that without a homebuyer counseling component, very-low-down-payment lending may lead to higher default and foreclosure rates, imposing significant costs on households and communities. The literature on mortgage defaults has generally found that very high LTVs increase default rates substantially ([Deng, Quigley, & Van Order, 1995](#); [Government Accountability Office, 2005a](#).)

However, some studies have found that borrowers who received counseling had lower default rates than those who did not. For example, [Glaeser and Loken \(2003\)](#) found that individuals who received counseling had lower default rates and higher LTVs than those who did not.

Seller-funded programs have also been found to have higher default rates than other programs. [Glaeser and Loken \(2003\)](#) found that seller-funded programs had higher default rates than other programs.

Despite the evidence that seller-funded programs have higher default rates, they have been found to have higher foreclosure rates than other programs. [Glaeser and Loken \(2003\)](#) found that seller-funded programs had higher foreclosure rates than other programs.

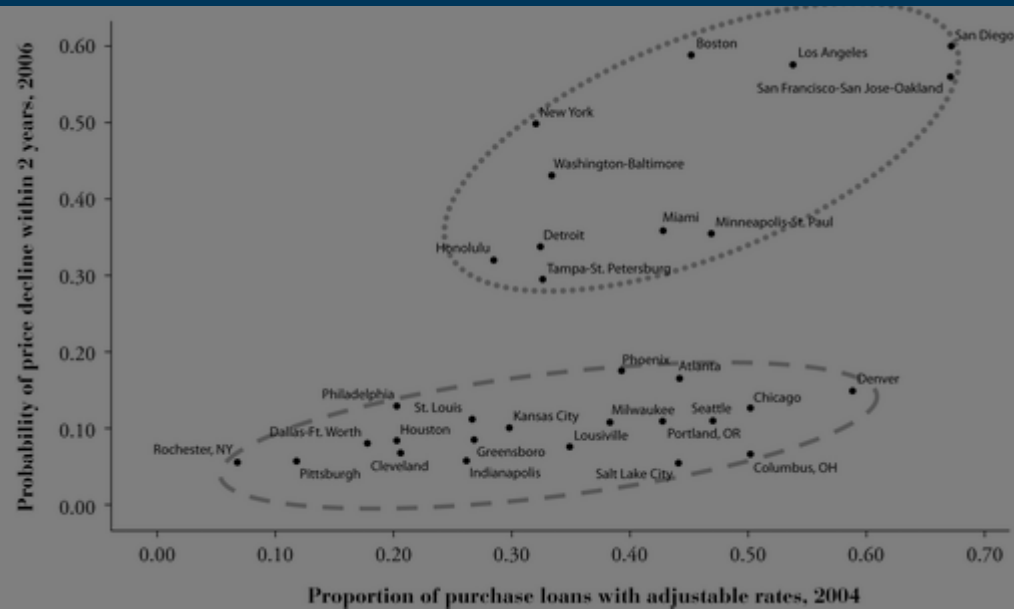
Moreover, as the literature on mortgage defaults has generally found that very high LTVs increase default rates substantially, the literature on mortgage foreclosures has generally found that very high LTVs increase foreclosure rates substantially. [Glaeser and Loken \(2003\)](#) found that very high LTVs increase foreclosure rates substantially.

“FHA reform” advocated enabling more zero-down-payment activity in FHA products to address the problems in the subprime market, though critics argued the proposed changes would repeat past mistakes ([Donahue, 2007](#)).

Implications for Local Planning and Policy

The recent changes in mortgage markets I have described here have had four consequences. They have: 1) increased the overall level of risk in the mortgage market; 2) shifted more risk from lenders to borrowers by increasing the use of adjustable rate and other alternative loan structures; 3) increased the vulnerability of metropolitan housing markets to plateaus in home price appreciation, so that when a rapidly appreciating regional housing market begins to appreciate more slowly foreclosure rates increase substantially; and 4) resulted in spatially concentrated patterns of foreclosures, particularly stressing housing markets in neighborhoods where the higher-risk products are more prevalent. Moreover, because foreclosures both increase available housing stock and remove households from the homeownership market at least temporarily, higher numbers of foreclosures and stalling or declining home values can become mutually reinforcing trends.

One important implication of these trends is that they may undermine the relationship between housing and economic growth. Foreclosures, for example, do not entail the same level of investment in weaker housing markets as new construction. In a metropolitan area with a high level of foreclosure, the costs on the surrounding area are high. [Smith \(2006\)](#) found that in a metropolitan area with a foreclosure rate of 1.4%, an additional 1.4% of the population would be displaced. Figure 7 shows the spatial distribution of foreclosure markets in the United States.



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Although local action can be overwhelmed by the impacts of unwise federal or state policy, I recommend seven things that planners can do in their own localities to address the problems higher-risk mortgage lending can bring.

Track Local Lending and Foreclosure Patterns

Some communities have developed “neighborhood early warning systems” that alert planners, community groups and officials to signs of increased housing problems, including foreclosures, code violations, and tax delinquencies, so they can take action before problems grow too large. The Providence Urban Land Reform Initiative, a joint effort of the [Providence Plan \(2006\)](#) and the Providence Department of Planning, is an excellent example of such an effort.

Promote Healthier Mortgage Markets in Vulnerable Areas

Planners should proactively encourage responsible lenders to market their products more aggressively to areas that have been dominated by subprime lenders, and to monitor their own loan officers and the independent mortgage brokers with whom they work for abusive or questionable lending practices. While it may be unwise for some subprime borrowers to refinance, research suggests that many are creditworthy and can be served with better structured, more responsible, and less expensive products ([An & Bostic, 2006](#); [White, 2004](#)). The federal Community Reinvestment Act (CRA) encourages banks to meet the credit needs of their communities, and can be a tool for promoting sound and fair lending, though unfortunately local governments have made little use of it. For example, planners may comment formally to federal regulators under the CRA on particular community lending practices.

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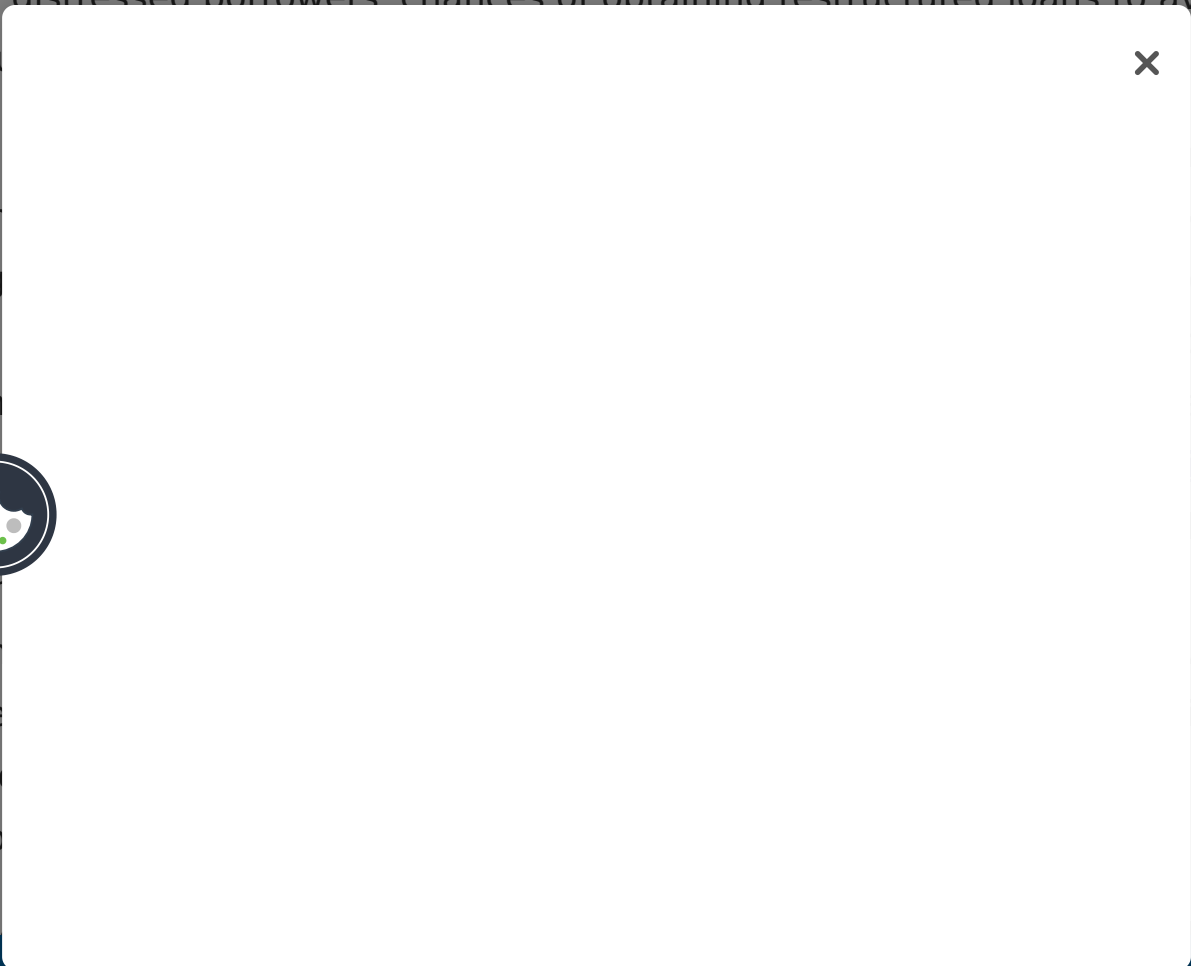
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Develop Refinancing/Restructuring Programs

In localities with neighborhoods that have very high foreclosure rates, state and local agencies should work to develop programs to restructure loans for large numbers of distressed borrowers. Such programs should aim to reduce mortgage payments and to maintain these reduced payments over the (potentially extended) term of the loan. Two basic strategies can be employed in tandem. First, local and state planners and officials can work with major servicers and mortgagees in their localities to negotiate processes through which borrowers can more easily obtain affordable loan modifications, including term extensions, rate reductions, and temporary forbearance packages. Individual borrowers can be intimidated by large, sometimes complex, loan servicing operations. They may have difficulty reaching the right individuals, and may generally lack the skill to negotiate with personnel at the servicing firm. Illinois, New York, Massachusetts, and Ohio have formed task forces or initiated discussions involving local housing groups and representatives of the lending and investment industries on how to improve distressed borrowers' chances of obtaining restructured loans to avoid foreclosure.

Second, community development financial institutions (CDFIs) can play a role in providing funds, or co-funding, to help distressed borrowers. CDFIs have been successful in existing mortgage modification programs, such as the Neighborhood Stabilization Program (NSP) and the Community Development Financial Institutions Fund (CDFIF). CDFIs can also intervene in distressed neighborhoods to help borrowers obtain loan modifications. CDFIs can play a larger role in restructuring distressed loans. The U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) has a [Community Development Financial Institutions Fund \(CDFIF\)](#) that provides technical assistance for CDFIs. HUD has also provided some funding to CDFIs to help distressed families facing foreclosure. CDFIs can be needed. Since the



initiated programs to provide refinance or bridge loans of some sort to distressed borrowers ([Krauss, 2007](#)). However, these programs are not large enough to help more than a few of the borrowers needing assistance. For example, Massachusetts' program is funded at \$250 million, and estimated sufficient to assist approximately 1,000 homeowners. Moreover, if the funding sources and state administrations have low tolerances for risk, the proportion of distressed borrowers able to qualify for such programs may be quite modest.

Redesign Programs to Promote Sustainable Homeownership

Most metropolitan areas have homeownership financing programs supported by federal, state, and local government ([Galster & Santiago, 2007](#)). Reactions by some segments of the credit markets to recent developments may reduce liquidity so much that even applicants with only slightly impaired credit histories will be unable to obtain affordable and soundly structured home loans. In such an event, it will be especially important for the public sector to maintain a role in homeownership financing programs for low- and moderate-income residents. However, planners should work to ensure that such programs are well designed and managed, and aim to promote sustainable homeownership, not homeownership that ends in foreclosure. Planners should advocate screening practices that encourage responsible lending and that take into account borrowers' existing credit histories and financial resources. Planners should also advocate preventive measures that help borrowers avoid foreclosure.

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lenders to give the lenders alternatives to abandoning properties on which they have foreclosed.

Recognize the Effect of Foreclosure Surges on Rental Housing Markets

As substantial numbers of homeowners exit the owner-occupied segment of the local housing market at least temporarily through the foreclosure process, this will put demand-side pressures on rental housing in a region. Thus, planners should prepare for the rising demand for rental housing in markets suffering from large increases in foreclosures. Moreover, because foreclosure has a serious negative impact on an individual's credit history, it can also put affected households at a substantial disadvantage in the rental market, as many landlords screen out prospective tenants with weak credit histories. Thus, the selection of housing stock and neighborhoods for foreclosed families may be significantly limited.

Be Proactive in Policy Debates on Lending Regulation and Foreclosure Processes



Notes

Source: RealtyTrac, Inc. (2006).

2. In mortgage-backed securities (no principal reduction), which the issuer sells to some mortgage investors, the mortgage is amortized, and the issuer pays the principal that allows the mortgage-backed securities to be sold at a mortgage rate. Alt-A mortgage-backed securities are sold at a premium in exchange for income. For a more detailed discussion, see Hall (2006).

4. The change in the proportion of buyers who were Black, the change in the proportion of buyers who were Hispanic, and the change in median loan size, may result from as well as cause changes in the share of a metropolitan area's home purchase loans that are subprime, making these variables potentially endogenous. First, an increased presence of subprime lenders in a region may be expected to increase the number of Black or Hispanic homebuyers, due to their providing more access to credit for Black and Hispanic households than prime lenders. Second, more subprime lending may actually increase the prices of homes by providing borrowers with greater spending power (through higher debt-to-income ratios), which in turn can result in a bidding up of housing values. To remedy this, I used a two-stage least-squares technique, first regressing these three endogenous variables on the other independent variables together with three additional instrumental variables I expected to affect the three endogenous variables but not to be significantly affected by the dependent variable. For instrumental variables, I used the 1997 to 2003 change in the metropolitan area's home price index as measured by the Office of Federal Housing Enterprise and Oversight; the change in the proportion of the population that was African American from 1990 to 2000; and the change in the proportion of the population that was

5. Though the test is not significant at the .10 level, it is significant at the .05 level. The small size of my sample.



Related research

8. The MIRS data omit some significant segments of the mortgage market, including refinance loans, very large loans, loans made by specialized subprime lenders, and in latter years, loans with interest rates below 2.75%, including many ARMs with teaser rates ([Congressional Budget Office, 2001](#)). This last omission is particularly relevant in recent years with the advent of exotic mortgages and given the relatively low interest rate environment.
9. Even some public agencies have promoted exotic products as a means of enabling buyers to purchase larger homes. For example, Rhode Island Housing, a public lender, promoted its “Buy More” program as enabling the borrower to qualify “to buy a bigger house, a house in better condition or a house in a more convenient location.” The product is an interest-only loan ([Rhode Island Housing, 2006](#)).
10. The maximum LTV ratio on FHA loans varies, but is technically capped at just under 98%. However, some costs and the FHA up-front insurance premium are excluded from this calculation, so that the LTV can effectively exceed 100% on some loans ([Berkovec, Canner, Gabriel, & Hannon, 1994](#).)
11. In 2006, however, the Internal Revenue Service ruled that organizations providing seller-funded assistance do not qualify as tax-exempt charities. The Sacramento-based Nehemiah Corporation of America, the largest of such organizations, is appealing the ruling ([V](#)
12. [Real](#) preforec with mo fourth la in all thr (REO) pr there foreclos number
13. This the FHA
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15. Making real estate data generally available does raise privacy concerns. However, I generally advocate that regional planning bodies collect and disseminate only what is already part of the public record, providing it to the public at little or no cost. In most areas data firms already provide such a service, but charge high prices, meaning mortgage brokers and property investors are effectively the only parties able to afford access to these data.
16. Note that some of the recent reforms, particularly those proposed for the Federal Housing Administration, were designed long before the subprime mortgage crisis and are intended mainly to reverse the decline in the FHA's share of the mortgage market.
17. Mortgage lending and foreclosure policy at the state and federal level is a complex topic beyond the scope of this article. For recommendations aimed at improving access to sound and responsible credit and at reducing high and spatially concentrated foreclosures, see [Immergluck \(2004\)](#) and [Schloemer et al. \(2006\)](#).

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