

Recommendations for the “One Village, One Product” Strategy and Coffee Marketing Efficiency in Gowa Regency

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ABSTRACT: *The One Village One Product (OVOP) concept seeks to raise farmers' income by promoting regionally distinctive commodities. In Topidi Village, South Sulawesi, coffee is widely cultivated and well suited for agroforestry systems, offering high market potential. However, farmer profits are reduced by inefficient marketing channels involving many intermediaries. This study analyzed marketing institutions and the efficiency of Arabica coffee marketing using Marketing Margin, Farmer's Share, and Profit to Cost Ratio methods. Data from four marketing outlets showed that Outlet IV, where farmers sell directly to end users, achieved the highest marketing efficiency at 44 percent for ground coffee and the highest profit. Adopting the OVOP concept for coffee could help position it as a leading regional commodity by integrating production across areas with similar landscapes, thus strengthening local industry and boosting household incomes.*

Key words: Arabica coffee, marketing efficiency, OVOP, agroforestry, rural development

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1. INTRODUCTION

The One Village One Product (OVOP) movement was a policy launched in 1980 by Oita Prefecture, Japan. Oita Prefecture built its movement on three principles: local yet global, self-reliance and creativity, and human resources development. The concept objective was to stimulate the local rural economy, which was shrinking due to increased competition, both domestic and international, coupled with national economic choices seen as unfavourable to remote areas (Hiramatsu 1982; Mukai et al. 2015; Noble 2018). The OVOP project has attracted attention from several developing countries with the aim of revitalising rural communities and providing better quality control for products. Similar projects have spread to other Asian and Central Asian countries including

Cambodia, India, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Mongolia, Myanmar, Kyrgyz Republic, Taiwan, and Thailand. Menurut Natsuda et al. (2012), di Thailand, Oita's experience with the OVOP development strategy influenced the Thaksin government to introduce a Thai version called 'One Tambon One Product' to stimulate rural development in the country.

Taking village as the fundamental unit, it makes full use of local resource advantages, traditional advantages and regional advantages in certain area, in accordance with the domestic and foreign market demands. Through promoting the constructions of formalization, standardization, branding, and marketization, one or several villages can have one or several leading products or industries, which have great market potentials, outstanding regional characteristics, and high added value, so as to improve the overall rural economic strength and comprehensive competitiveness (Xujin et al. 2013). Furthermore, since degree of poverty is still high in Indonesia, it is need to accelerate the progress of poverty alleviation, one of the strategies is to promote Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) empowerment, through implementation OVOP in Indonesia (Widiyanti 2018).

Indonesia has abundant natural resources, including agricultural, fisheries, and forestry (Hartatri et al. 2021; Hajad et al. 2023). In 2020, the share of estate crops in the national Gross Domestic Product (GDP) recorded an increase, driven in part by coffee production. Coffee is a critical commodity that not only contributes significantly to national income but also sustains the livelihoods of millions of smallholder farmers across the country (Tamirat et al. 2023; Hartatri et al. 2021). Currently, approximately 743,408 smallholder farmers are engaged in coffee cultivation in Indonesia. The country is recognized as one of the world's leading coffee producers (Nugroho 2014). In 2020, Indonesia ranked as the fourth largest coffee producer globally, accounting for approximately 6.9 percent of total world coffee production (International Coffee Organization 2020; Hartatri et al. 2021).

Indonesian coffee farmers still face challenges in marketing, largely relying on intermediaries amid market power imbalances and information asymmetries, which reduce marketing efficiency (Permana et al. 2020). Topidi Village was chosen for OVOP implementation due to its suitable agro-climatic conditions, established coffee farming tradition, and the crop's role in household incomes. Coffee was selected as the flagship product for its domestic and international market potential and unique regional attributes that support branding. According to Hasannudin et al. (2023), Arabica coffee (*C. arabica*) is the dominant crop (55%), with farmers motivated to expand planting as it creates jobs and increases income. This study therefore aims to: (1) analyze coffee production management and related marketing channels; (2) assess marketing efficiency; and (3) provide recommendations for OVOP implementation in Topidi Village.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 Study Area

This study was conducted in Topidi Village (5° 17'01"S 119° 53'12 "E), located in Bontolerung Subdistrict, Tinggimoncong District, Gowa Regency, South Sulawesi, Indonesia. Topidi Village is a rural community characterized by its hilly terrain and favorable agro-climatic conditions for Arabica coffee cultivation. The majority of residents are smallholder farmers who depend on coffee as their primary source of income, and agricultural practices in the village are strongly rooted in local traditions.

2.2 Data Collection

The data were collected using a snowball-purposive sampling method, beginning with interviews with the heads of farmer groups as key informants, followed by additional informants recommended by previous participants. The study involved 26 selected farmers who cultivate coffee using agroforestry systems. Data collection methods included field observations, semi-structured interviews, and open-ended questionnaires. This research utilized both primary and secondary data. Primary data covered respondent profiles, coffee cultivation

and management practices, institutions involved in marketing, marketing costs, coffee prices, and revenues. Secondary data consisted of information on other local commodities, scientific articles on the One Village One Product concept, coffee varieties, and the village monograph.

2.3 Data Analysis

Analysis of Institutions and the Marketing Channels

Institutions involved in the marketing of goods or services are people or organizations. In the village of Topidi, Gowa district, South Sulawesi, the marketing analysis initiatives to identify the institutions involved in the Arabica coffee marketing channel. In contrast, marketing channel analysis uses a descriptive qualitative approach to examine the marketing paths that marketing organisations use to get Arabica coffee from producers to final customers. Producers, collectors, wholesalers, small dealers, and consumers are among the marketing actors in the marketing channel who take part in marketing-related activities.

Analysis Marketing Efficiency of Arabica Coffee

Marketing efficiency is a measure of consumer satisfaction and to determine the distribution of margins obtained from marketing activities. Efficient marketing channels must provide equitable benefits for the institutions involved. This study is limited to the level of institutions that are directly connected to farmers in Topidi Village. Therefore, the marketing margin observed represents the price difference between these institutions and the farm-gate price. To measure the efficiency of the coffee marketing channel, this analysis employs three key indicators: (a) marketing margin analysis, (b) farmer's share, and (c) the profit-to-cost ratio of the marketing institutions.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 Institutions and The Marketing Channels

Marketing institutions and channels of Arabica Coffee

The identified market outlets include farmers, wholesalers, retailers, and end users or consumers. In Channel I, farmers sell coffee directly to enterprises or companies. Channel II involves farmers selling coffee cherries to collector traders, who then sell to companies. In Channel III, farmers sell to small collectors who resell to larger collectors in other cities. Lastly, in Channel IV, collector traders sell directly to end users or consumers (Figure 1).

1. Outlet I: Channel I consists of coffee farmers who directly sell their coffee production to PT. Java Frinsa, a company located in Bandung, West Java, Indonesia. The farmers harvest Arabica coffee cherries and receive a wage of IDR 3,000 per kilogram for picking the ripe cherries. The farmers employ 15 workers, each of whom can harvest between 30 to 40 kg of cherries. The post-harvest process before selling to the company includes pulping, washing, drying, hulling, sorting, and packaging.

2. Outlet II: Outlet II involves coffee farmers who sell their red cherries to local collector traders in the Topidi Village area. The collector traders purchase the red cherries at IDR 15,000 per kilogram. After purchasing the cherries from the farmers, the collector traders process the coffee. There are two coffee collector traders in Topidi Village. The processed coffee is then sold to PT. Java Frinsa, the same company located in Bandung, West Java. The post-harvest processing in Outlet II follows the same procedures as in Outlet I.

3. Outlet III: Outlet III includes coffee farmers who sell their harvest to a collector trader in the form of mixed cherries (both red and green). The collector trader processes the cherries and sells the processed product to a large collector trader in Makassar, South Sulawesi. The coffee from the farmers is purchased at IDR 6,000 per kilogram. The mixed cherries are then processed through pulping, washing, drying, and are subsequently packaged in plastic and sacks before being sent to the larger collector trader.

4. Outlet IV: Outlet IV involves coffee farmers who sell their coffee directly to consumers or end users. The coffee sold consists of red cherries. The processing

of the coffee varies depending on consumer demand, which may include methods such as natural, full-washed, semi-washed, or honey processing. The method of processing significantly affects the price, flavor, and quality of the coffee beans. After processing, the coffee is marketed in the form of green beans, priced at IDR 40,000 for 200 grams (IDR 200,000 per kilogram), or as ground coffee at IDR 50,000 for 200 grams (IDR 250,000 per kilogram).

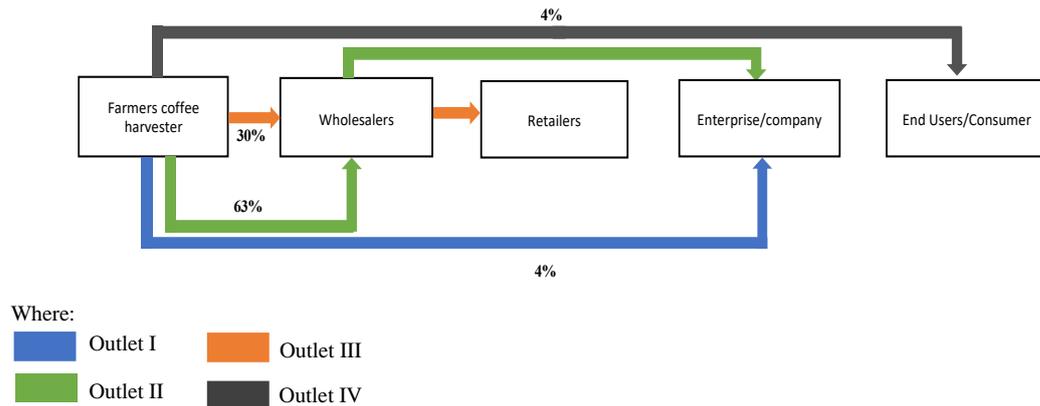


Figure 1. Marketing Channels of Coffee in the study area: Authors ‘own mapping (2023)

Figure 1 shows that 63% of coffee farmers sell their harvest to wholesalers who then supply companies (Channel II), while 30% sell to local collectors in Topidi Village who resell to larger collectors in other cities. By contrast, only 4% of farmers each sell directly to companies (Outlet I) or directly to end consumers (Outlet IV). According to Veidal et al.(2011) and Milford et al.(2021), a key advantage of direct sales through farmers’ markets is the opportunity for producers to engage directly with consumers, test new products, and better understand consumer preferences. For example, this direct feedback allows farmers to adjust coffee processing methods and the form in which products are marketed to align with consumer tastes.

Table 1. Average marketing margins and cost analysis of channel per kg of arabika coffee

No.	Items (IDR/kg)	Outlet I (IDR)	Outlet II (IDR)	Outlet III (IDR)	Outlet IV (IDR)	
					Greenbean	Coffee powder
1	Purchase price from coffee farmers	-	15.000	6.000	-	-
2	Coffee picking wages	3.000	-	-	3.000	3.000
3	Pulping Cost	563	563	300	563	563
4	Washing and drying cost			800		
5	Hulling cost			-		
6	Roasting Cost			-		
7	Grinding cost	-	-	-	-	-
8	Sorting cost	2.000	2.000	-	2.000	2.000
9	Packaging cost	1.600	1.600	900	-	-
10	Transport Cost	500	500	600	-	-
11	Total Marketing Cost (c)	7.663	4.663	2.600	5.563	5.563
12	Selling price to the company/wholesaler/final consumer	150.000	150.000	15.000	200.000	250.000
Marketing Margin for Farmer coffee (IDR)		150.000	135.000	9.000	200.000	250.000
Marketing Margin Percentage (%)		100	89	33	100	100
Farmer's share (%)		100	10	40	100	100
Marketing efficiency (Shephred's Method)		19	31	5	35	44
Profit (pi)		142.337	145.337	12.400	194.437	244.437
Rasio (pi /c)		19	31	5	35	44

Note: 1 US\$= IDR 14,983.60

Marketing margins, Cost and marketing efficiency along the arabika coffee value chain

The study found that Arabica coffee in the research area is marketed through multiple channels before reaching consumers (Figure 2), with marketing costs incurred at each stage. These costs include harvesting wages, pulping, washing and drying, hulling, roasting, grinding, sorting, packaging, and transportation. Table 1 shows the highest total marketing cost in Outlet I at IDR 7,663/kg, where harvesting wages make up the largest share (39% or IDR 3,000/kg). Similarly, in Outlet IV, harvesting wages account for 54% of the

total cost. In Outlet II, sorting is the largest cost component at 43% of the total IDR 2,000/kg, while transportation is the lowest at 11%. For Outlet III, packaging dominates, comprising 35% of the total marketing cost at IDR 900/kg.

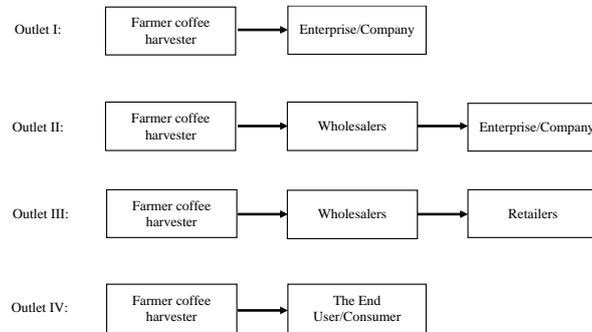


Figure 3. Marketing channel of kopi arabika

In Channels I and II, pulping, washing, drying, and hulling costs are covered by fixed monthly salaries of IDR 1,500,000 for permanent workers. Outlet III has no costs for hulling, roasting, grinding, or sorting because these steps are skipped, and collectors buy lower-quality mixed cherries, unlike Outlet II, which buys only ripe red cherries at higher prices. In Outlet IV, processed coffee is sold as green beans and ground coffee, each with a marketing cost of IDR 5,563 per kilogram. Ground coffee sells at a higher price (IDR 250,000/kg) due to grinding, though this cost is included in salaries. The highest marketing margins are found in Outlet IV (IDR 250,000 for ground coffee and IDR 200,000 for green beans, both at 100%), followed by Outlet I (IDR 150,000 or 100%), Outlet II (IDR 135,000 or 89%), and Outlet III (IDR 9,000 or 33%)

The highest farmer's share is found in Outlets I and IV (100%) because farmers process and sell coffee directly to exporters or end consumers. Although Outlet II shows a higher marketing margin than Outlet III, its farmer's share is lower due to a larger price gap created by premium post-harvest processing. In contrast, Outlet III conducts only basic processing, resulting in a smaller price gap but lower product quality, and sells to large collectors in Makassar City (about 68.4 km away). Marketing efficiency is highest in Outlet IV (44% for ground coffee

and 35% for green beans), followed by Outlets II (31%), I (19%), and III (5%). The profit-to-cost ratio also reflects this pattern, with Outlet IV achieving IDR 44/kg, then Outlets II (IDR 35/kg), I (IDR 31/kg), and III (IDR 5/kg), meaning each additional IDR 1 spent on marketing in Outlet IV generates IDR 44/kg in profit compared to only IDR 5/kg in Outlet III

3.2 Discussion

The study by Hasannudin et al. (2022) found that 43% of coffee farmers belong to the age groups of 30–49 and 50–69 years, and that Arabica coffee farming is male-dominated, although women play a significant role in harvesting. Similar findings were reported by Seid et al. (2022), highlighting women's substantial contribution during the coffee harvest. In Topidi Village, women also participate in planting seedlings and are primarily responsible for sorting activities due to their attention to detail, while men typically handle pulping, washing, drying, hulling, roasting, grinding, and transportation. Additionally, most coffee farmers in the area have only elementary-level education or no formal education, indicating that coffee farming serves as an important source of livelihood for individuals with limited educational backgrounds who might otherwise lack access to formal employment opportunities.

Cost, Farmer's Share, Profit-to-Cost Ratio, and Marketing Margins of Coffee Farmers

Farmers in Topidi Village carry out various stages of coffee production, including land preparation, maintenance, harvesting, and post-harvest processing, typically using basic tools such as hoes, machetes, sickles, and sprayers. Land preparation usually takes place from September to October, with harvesting occurring between April and June. Coffee plants begin to yield harvestable cherries at around four years and reach peak productivity at seven years, producing up to 2 kg per tree. During harvesting, between two and six workers per hectare are employed depending on productivity. Post-harvest

processes prioritize careful handling to protect flavor quality, and processing methods vary according to market demand. The highest marketing expenses are generally for purchasing cherries, followed by labor costs for harvesting and sorting, where each worker can sort about 30–40 kg of cherries per day. Outlets with more intermediaries (Outlets II and III) reported lower total marketing costs, while higher costs in other outlets were associated with factors like processing quality and product form.

The farmer's share was highest in Outlet I and Outlet IV, each reaching 100 percent, as farmers processed and sold coffee directly to exporters or consumers. The profit-to-cost ratio was also highest in Outlet IV, where ground coffee generated IDR 244,437 per kilogram, yielding a ratio of 44. The lowest marketing margin appeared in Outlet III due to the use of mixed-quality cherries and limited post-harvest treatment, while the highest margins were found in Outlets I, II, and IV, linked to selective harvesting and farmers' direct processing. Outlet IV was identified as the most efficient marketing channel, with the lowest marketing cost percentage and the fewest intermediaries. This aligns with studies suggesting that fewer intermediaries often lead to higher efficiency, though some scholars note that a higher margin can also reflect added value from processing and marketing functions rather than inefficiency.

Marketing Efficiency of Arabica Coffee Farmers

Using the Shepherd's Marketing Efficiency approach, Outlet IV was identified as the most efficient channel, where farmers sell processed coffee directly to end users, achieving high marketing margins, farmer's share, and profit-to-cost ratio with low marketing costs (only 2–3% of the final price). Although Outlet I had a higher margin percentage than Outlet II, Outlet II was more efficient (31% vs. 19%) due to lower marketing costs. Conversely, Outlet III showed the lowest efficiency (5%) because of low selling prices (IDR 15,000/kg) and minimal processing. These results align with Atinga et al. (2022), who found that direct-to-consumer channels are generally more efficient.

Recommendations for Implementing "One Village, One Product"

The One Village One Product (OVOP) initiative, first introduced in Oita Prefecture, Japan, aims to address rural challenges such as human capital depletion, capital outflow, and declining local industries (Noble 2019). According to Yang et al. (2021), OVOP positively impacts agricultural development by increasing farmers' income, highlighting regional uniqueness, and strengthening rural competitiveness. It also helps maximize local resources and traditional knowledge to add value to agricultural products. In China, OVOP has become an effective model for promoting agricultural and rural economic growth.

The OVOP concept aims to enable each region to focus on developing a unique product that adds value and contributes to local income growth. However, "one product" in this context does not mean that a village must produce only a single commodity. Instead, it refers to identifying and promoting a leading or flagship commodity that reflects the area's comparative advantage. Villages may continue to cultivate other products, but the OVOP initiative encourages communities to prioritize and market a key product that best represents their region. Regions with similar products and comparable landscape characteristics are often grouped together to create stronger and more integrated local industries. In Indonesia, these areas are known as *Kawasan Perdesaan* (Rural Areas). According to Law No. 6 of 2014 on Villages (Undang-Undang Republik Indonesia Nomor 6 Tahun 2014 tentang Desa), rural area development involves coordinated development among villages within the same regency or municipality (Kabupaten/Kota). A *Kawasan Perdesaan* typically has agriculture as its primary economic activity, along with natural resource management, rural settlements, administrative and social services, and economic activities. Developing these areas includes empowering village communities to improve access to economic opportunities and essential public services. Achieving the OVOP goal within rural area development also requires supporting infrastructure, improvement of rural economies, and the application of appropriate technology.

In Bontolung Sub-district, which consists of the villages of Topidi, Panaikang, Biroro, and Bontote'ne, 56 percent of farmers currently cultivate coffee and 55 percent plan to expand coffee planting (Hasannudin et al. 2022a). Farmers also grow other crops, including clove (39 percent), porang (1 percent), vegetables, and rice (Hasannudin et al. 2022b). In Topidi Village, coffee agroforestry generates an average annual income of IDR 15,144,295, which generally covers daily household expenses for food and non-food needs.

From a marketing efficiency perspective, coffee appears to have strong potential to be promoted as the leading commodity under the “One Village, One Product” (OVOP) framework in the Bontolung area. However, it is important to emphasize that choosing an OVOP commodity should not rely solely on current production patterns. A comprehensive assessment is needed to determine which commodity is most suitable for sustainable development in the region. These assessments should include social, economic, and ecological analyses. Social analysis, as highlighted by Hasannudin et al. (2022a), should consider which crops local communities are currently cultivating or willing to cultivate, while also ensuring alignment with local customs and cultural values. Economic analysis should include financial feasibility studies to evaluate whether the commodity can be profitable and sustainable in the long term. Finally, ecological analysis should examine potential environmental impacts, such as land degradation, biodiversity loss, and effects on soil and water conservation.

On the other hand, Zhang et al. (2014), in discussing the implementation of the OVOP approach, noted that some scholars have raised concerns about its potential negative impacts, particularly on the environment. These concerns include hindering sustainable development, increasing greenhouse gas emissions, and conflicting with the fundamental laws of material balance. Coffee is an agricultural crop, and considering the ecological conditions of Topidi Village, which is located at an elevation of over 1,200 meters above sea level, surrounded by conservation forest, and characterized by moderately steep topography, the

implementation of coffee cultivation requires the use of agroforestry systems. Observations confirm that coffee in Topidi is indeed cultivated within agroforestry systems. The shade-providing tree species commonly found include *Falcataria moluccana* (silk tree), *Erythrina variegata* (easter flower), *Gmelina arborea* (beechwood), and *Toona sureni* (red cedar) (Hasannudin et al., 2022a).

A key challenge lies in designing coffee agroforestry systems that can effectively regulate pests and diseases to reduce yield losses, while at the same time preserving essential ecosystem services that benefit both farmers and society. For farming households, the diverse products generated from agroforestry systems, such as fruits, timber, and firewood, contribute not only to household income but also to food security (Cerda et al., 2020). Agroforestry has been widely recognized as a viable solution to land use constraints. It improves ecosystem functionality and provides economic benefits to farmers (Paul et al., 2017; Hasannudin et al., 2022 a). Promoting agroforestry-based land use can also support reforestation efforts in areas that have been converted from forest to other uses and serve as a strategy to restore degraded lands (Hasannudin et al., 2022a). The successful implementation of the OVOP strategy requires collaboration among government agencies, academic institutions, local organizations, NGOs, and community leaders. To reduce the potential negative impacts of OVOP, the government should strengthen farmland protection policies, invest in infrastructure development, and establish strong platforms to promote diversified employment opportunities (Yang et al., 2021; Huang et al., 2021).

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