



Plant Archives

Journal homepage: <http://www.plantarchives.org>

DOI Url : <https://doi.org/10.51470/PLANTARCHIVES.2026.v26.supplement-1.287>

FLOWERING PHYSIOLOGY AND FRUIT SET REGULATION IN MAJOR FRUIT, VEGETABLE, AND FLOWER CROPS: A COMPREHENSIVE REVIEW

Rajneesh Singh¹, Lalramchhana^{2*}, Yogendra Pratap Singh³, G. Ranganna⁴, Monisha Thangavel⁵, Ravi Pratap Singh⁶, Devi Singh⁶ and Khushal B. Muradi⁷

¹Krishi Vigyan Kendra, Saraiya, Muzaffarpur, Bihar under Dr. Rajendra Prasad Central Agricultural University, Pusa, Samastipur, Bihar-843126, India

²Department of Horticulture Aromatic and Medicinal plants, Mizoram University, Mizoram- 796004, India

³Krishi Vigyan Kendra, Katiya, Sitapur, UP 261145

⁴Dr.YSR Horticultural University, Horticultural Research Station, VR GUEDEM, West Godavari - 534101, Andhra Pradesh, India.

⁵Department of Vegetable Science, Punjab Agricultural University, Ludhiana, Punjab, India

⁶Faculty of Agriculture, Maharishi Markandeshwar (Deemed to be) University Mullana, Ambala Haryana -133207, India

⁷Department of Vegetable Science, Kerala Agriculture University, Vellanikkara, Thrissur, Kerala

*Corresponding author E-mail: rc.pautu.rc@gmail.com

(Date of Receiving : 20-10-2025; Date of Acceptance : 27-12-2025)

ABSTRACT

Flowering and fruit set are critical developmental stages in horticultural crops that directly determine yield, quality, and economic returns. These processes represent a complex transition from vegetative to reproductive growth and are regulated by dynamic interactions among environmental cues and internal factors, including hormonal balance, carbohydrate availability, mineral nutrition, genetic control, and molecular signaling. Successful flowering ensures effective pollination and fertilization, while efficient fruit set governs fruit retention, early development, and final productivity. Disruptions caused by hormonal imbalance, nutritional constraints, unfavorable climatic conditions, or genetic limitations often result in flower abscission, poor fruit set, and yield instability.

This review synthesizes recent advances in the physiological, biochemical, genetic, and environmental regulation of flowering and fruit set in major horticultural crops. Emphasis is placed on floral induction and differentiation, source-sink relationships, carbohydrate metabolism, and the coordinated roles of key plant hormones in regulating floral transition and early fruit development. The influence of photoperiod, temperature, vernalization, and abiotic stresses particularly under climate change scenarios is critically examined. Crop-specific management strategies to enhance flowering synchronization and fruit set efficiency are also discussed, offering insights for improving reproductive resilience and yield stability in horticultural systems.

Keywords : Flowering physiology; Fruit set regulation; Plant hormones; Floral induction; Genetic control; Pollination biology; Environmental stress; Horticultural crops.

Introduction

In the life cycle of horticultural crops, flowering and fruit set are two of the most important developmental phases because they have a direct impact on yield potential, fruit quality, and financial profitability. The change from vegetative to reproductive growth in fruits, vegetables, and ornamental crops signifies a complicated physiological

reprogramming that influences the success of reproduction. Fruit set is the successful conversion of a fertilized ovary into a growing fruit, whereas flowering involves floral induction, initiation, and differentiation. Major obstacles to sustained horticulture output arise from any restriction throughout these stages, which frequently leads to poor fruit set, excessive flower loss, or irregular bearing (Taiz *et al.*, 2018). From a

physiological standpoint, flowering is controlled by a complex interplay between exogenous environmental cues like photoperiod, temperature, and nutrition availability and endogenous signals like hormones, carbohydrates, and genetic factors. Adequate assimilate supply and hormonal balance are critical for floral bud development and reproductive capability during the floral transition, which is frequently referred to as a "sink-driven process" (Goldschmidt, 2013). This transition is made more difficult in perennial fruit crops by alternate bearing, where heavy fruiting in one season reduces blossom initiation in the following season because of hormonal imbalance and carbohydrate depletion (Bangerth, 2000).

Fruit set, which involves high cell division, hormonal communication, and metabolic activity in the ovary tissues, starts right after pollination and fertilization. Pollen viability, stigma receptivity, fertilization efficiency, and post-fertilization hormonal signals specifically auxins and gibberellins, which promote ovary expansion and inhibit abscission are all necessary for a fruit set to be successful (Srivastava and Handa, 2005). While fruit development is extremely susceptible to temperature extremes in vegetable crops like tomatoes and cucumbers, marketable floral production and quality in flower crops are mostly determined by reproductive success (Kinet and Peet, 1997). Fruit set and flowering are both heavily influenced by hormone control. While cytokinins increase sink strength and floral meristem activity, gibberellins are known to stimulate flowering in some long-day plants while suppressing it in others. Gibberellins and auxins are especially crucial for fruit set; in parthenocarpic fruit growth, they frequently replace fertilization (Davies, 2010). Conversely, abscisic acid and ethylene are strongly linked to fruit and floral abscission, particularly in stressful situations (Jackson, 2003).

Fruit set regulation and flowering physiology are significantly impacted by environmental influences. While abiotic factors including heat, dehydration, and salinity interfere with pollen development, fertilization, and early fruit growth, photoperiod and temperature serve as the main cues for floral induction (Hedhly *et al.*, 2009). Increased temperature variability and extreme weather events have exacerbated reproductive failures in many horticulture crops under climate change scenarios, making knowledge of flowering and fruit set regulation increasingly important (IPCC, 2022). Improving crop productivity and resilience requires a thorough understanding of flowering physiology and fruit set management due to the intricacy and economic significance of these processes.

A basis for creating better management techniques, breeding plans, and technological interventions targeted at boosting reproductive efficiency across various horticultural systems is provided by integrating physiological, hormonal, genetic, and environmental knowledge (Hanke *et al.*, 2007).

Morphological and Developmental Processes of Flowering

The vegetative shoot apical meristem (SAM) becomes a reproductive floral meristem during flowering, a complicated developmental process that involves a number of synchronized morphological changes. In fruit, vegetable, and flower crops, reproductive success is determined by this crucial developmental shift. Floral induction, floral initiation, and floral differentiation are the three main morphological stages of blooming that are controlled by physiological, hormonal, and genetic cues (Wilkie *et al.*, 2008).

Floral Induction and Initiation

The physiological stage known as "floral induction" is when a plant learns to flower in response to both internal and external cues, including photoperiod, temperature, and plant age. Significant biochemical and molecular changes, including as shifts in hormone levels and assimilate allocation, occur inside the meristem and leaves during induction, despite the lack of obvious morphological changes (Taiz *et al.*, 2018). Floral induction happens months before visible flower bud formation in many fruit crops, including apples and mangos. This stage is especially vulnerable to resource competition since it frequently coincides with fruit development from the previous season (Goldschmidt, 2013). Following induction, floral initiation is characterized by obvious morphological alterations in the shoot apical meristem. As the meristem becomes a floral meristem, it enlarges, flattens, and loses its vegetative identity. In perennial fruit trees, floral initiation takes many weeks, but in vegetables like tomatoes and capsicums, it happens quickly and is heavily impacted by temperature and nutritional status (Sedgley and Griffin, 1989).

Flower Bud Differentiation and Development

The development and arrangement of floral organs, including as sepals, petals, stamens, and carpels, are referred to as floral differentiation. Fruiting potential, fertility, and flower structure are all determined at this stage. Hormonal gradients and floral homeotic genes control the precise developmental sequence of morphological differentiation (Coen and Meyerowitz, 1991). Any disturbance during this phase,

such as a hormonal imbalance or food shortage, might lead to inadequate ovary growth, deformed flowers, or decreased pollen viability. Fruit set and output are significantly impacted by flower bud divergence in fruit crops such as citrus and grape. Weak flowers that are prone to abscission are frequently the result of poor differentiation (Bangerth, 2000). The effectiveness of floral differentiation is closely related to blossom size, symmetry, and visual quality in ornamental crops, making this stage commercially crucial.

Structural Variability among Crop Groups

The floral structures of fruits, vegetables, and ornamentals exhibit significant morphological variety. Vegetables show a great deal of variation in the design of their inflorescences, whereas fruit crops, like papaya and cucumber, might have perfect or imperfect blooms. Morphological specialization has been widely used for breeding in blooming ornamentals (Kinet and Peet, 1997). Interpreting crop-specific blooming behavior and reproductive efficiency requires an understanding of such structural variation.

Physiological and Biochemical Regulation of Flowering

The plant system's intricate physiological and biochemical linkages control the extremely energy-dependent developmental process of flowering. The availability and mobilization of photo assimilates, nutritional status, metabolic activity, and enzymatic control are all necessary for the effective shift from vegetative growth to reproductive development. In order to guarantee prompt floral induction, initiation, and differentiation in horticultural crops, these internal variables work in tandem with external signals.

Carbohydrate Metabolism and Source Sink Relationships

As signaling molecules and sources of energy, carbohydrates are essential to flowering physiology. Developing flower buds serve as powerful sinks for photo assimilates, whereas leaves are the main suppliers. Bud formation and floral induction depend on an adequate supply of carbohydrates throughout the pre-flowering stage. Competition between maturing fruits and budding flower buds frequently reduces the availability of carbohydrates for floral induction in perennial fruit crops like apples and mangoes, resulting in alternating bearing behavior (Goldschmidt, 2013). Flowering signals have been strongly associated with the metabolism of starch and sucrose. By modifying gene expression and hormonal balance, increased sucrose transport to the shoot apical meristem improves floral transition (Bernier and Périlleux, 2005). Low carbohydrate availability in stressful or

shady environments causes vegetable crops, such as tomatoes, to delay blooming and produce fewer flowers (Kinet and Peet, 1997). Therefore, coordinated blooming and successful reproduction depend on an effective source-sink balance.

Role of Mineral Nutrition in Flowering

Mineral nutrients have a major impact on blooming because they are involved in hormone production, enzyme activation, and metabolic activities. Potassium, phosphorus, and nitrogen are especially crucial for controlling blooming behavior. While sufficient nitrogen encourages vegetative development, too much nitrogen frequently causes flowering to be delayed and lowers reproductive efficiency because of extended vegetative dominance (Marschner, 2012). Potassium improves flower quality and carbohydrate translocation, whereas phosphorus is essential for energy transfer and floral commencement. Additionally important to blooming physiology are micronutrients including iron, zinc, and boron. In many fruit and vegetable crops, boron deficiency is frequently linked to poor flower development, pollen sterility, and decreased fruit set (Brown *et al.*, 2002). Zinc affects floral bud development and fertility through its involvement in auxin metabolism and enzyme activation. For the best blooming and subsequent fruit set, balanced nutrition management is crucial.

Metabolic and Enzymatic Changes during Floral Transition

The plant undergoes major biochemical and enzymatic changes when it moves from vegetative to reproductive development. During floral induction and bud development, there has been evidence of increased activity of enzymes involved in the metabolism of carbohydrates, such as sucrose synthase and invertases (Roitsch and González, 2004). These enzymes control the cleavage of sucrose and make it easier for floral tissues to obtain the hexoses needed for rapid cell division.

During blooming, changes in protein synthesis and amino acid metabolism are also noticeable. Organ differentiation and reproductive capability are supported by increased production of floral-specific proteins (Taiz *et al.*, 2018). Furthermore, by reducing oxidative stress during reproductive development, especially in unfavorable environmental circumstances, secondary metabolites and antioxidants have protective effects (Hedhly *et al.*, 2009).

As flower buds mature, there is a noticeable increase in respiratory activity, which reflects the increased metabolic requirement. Increased

mitochondrial activity guarantees that enough ATP is produced to sustain fast growth and differentiation. Flower drop or decreased fertility can result from any disturbance in metabolic balance brought on by stress or nutritional scarcity.

Interaction of Physiology with Environmental Signals

Flowering's physiological and biochemical activities are closely related to environmental cues like temperature and photoperiod. Nutrient consumption, carbohydrate distribution, and internal metabolic pathways are all influenced by these external stimuli. Flowering and the development of floral organs are adversely affected by decreased photosynthesis and changed assimilate partitioning under heat or drought stress (Hedhly *et al.*, 2009). As a result, comprehending the physiological underpinnings of blooming offers important insights for creating crop management plans targeted at enhancing reproductive efficiency in climatically changing environments. Overall, the metabolism of carbohydrates, the availability of nutrients, enzyme activity, and interactions with the environment are all carefully balanced to control flowering physiology. To achieve consistent blooming, better fruit set, and increased yield in horticulture crops, these physiological and biochemical processes must be optimized.

Hormonal Control of Flowering and Fruit Set

In combining environmental cues with developmental signals, plant hormones function as key regulators of flowering and fruit set. Gibberellins, auxins, cytokinins, ethylene, and abscisic acid are among the phytohormones that work in concert to regulate the commencement and retention of fruits as well as the shift from vegetative to reproductive growth. In horticultural crops, these hormones work in a delicately controlled network that controls ovary size, fruit retention, floral organ development, and blooming time.

Role of Gibberellins in Flowering and Fruit Set

Gibberellins (GAs) play a prominent role in the regulation of flowering, although their effects vary among species. Gibberellins encourage floral induction and bolting in many long-day and biennial plants, but high GA levels prevent the initiation of flower buds in a number of perennial fruit crops, including citrus and apple (Mutasa-Gëgens & Hedden, 2009). This dual function emphasizes how GA activity in flowering physiology is crop-specific. Gibberellins assist early fruit growth by promoting cell proliferation and elongation in the ovary during fruit set. In crops like citrus and grapes, exogenous GA treatment has been

frequently employed to stimulate parthenocarpic fruit growth (Serrani *et al.*, 2007).

Auxins and Cytokinins in Floral Development and Fruit Initiation

Fruit set and floral organ development are crucially regulated by auxins. Auxin production in developing seeds stimulates ovary development after pollination and fertilization and prevents abscission by preserving sink strength (Pandolfini *et al.*, 2007). Gibberellins and auxins work together to encourage fruit initiation, frequently imitating fertilization signals in parthenocarpic fruits. Auxins impact organ development and floral symmetry in blooming ornamentals, which in turn affects aesthetic quality.

In order to increase floral meristem activity and flower lifetime, cytokinins mainly stimulate cell division and postpone senescence. During early fruit set, increased cytokinin levels in reproductive organs boost ovary growth, improve nutrient mobilization, and strengthen sinks (Sakakibara, 2006). Under unfavorable environmental circumstances, cytokinins have been demonstrated to enhance fruit set and blossom retention in plants like tomatoes and peppers.

Ethylene and Absciscic Acid in Flower and Fruit Abscission

Absciscic acid (ABA) and ethylene are often linked to inhibitory functions in fruit set and blooming, especially under stressful circumstances. Elevated ethylene production frequently results in early flower drop and decreased fruit set since ethylene is a crucial regulator of floral senescence and abscission (Bleecker and Kende, 2000). Stress-induced ethylene production speeds up the establishment of abscission layers in many fruit crops, leading to large yield losses.

Absciscic acid frequently works antagonistically to growth-promoting hormones and is essential for stress signaling. According to Shinozaki and Yamaguchi-Shinozaki (2007), high ABA levels under drought, heat, or salt stress inhibit floral growth, lower pollen viability, and hinder fertilization. Flower and fruit loss are made worse by hormonal imbalance and ABA-mediated decrease in glucose transport.

Hormonal Cross-talk and Regulation under Environmental Stress

Fruit set and flowering are controlled by intricate hormonal interactions rather than by individual hormones. The ultimate developmental result is determined by interactions between auxins, gibberellins, cytokinins, ethylene, and ABA. For example, GA-ABA interactions affect blooming induction under different environmental circumstances,

whereas auxin–ethylene balance is crucial in regulating abscission (Depuydt and Hardtke, 2011). This hormonal balance is upset by environmental stressors, which results in subpar reproduction.

By using plant growth regulators and breeding techniques targeted at hormonal balance, an understanding of hormonal control offers significant prospects for crop management. Hormonal pathway manipulation is a useful strategy for enhancing fruit set efficiency, flowering synchronization, and yield stability, especially in the face of shifting weather circumstances.

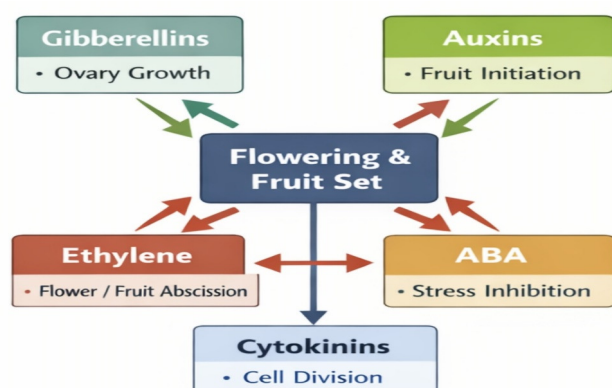


Fig. 1 : Hormonal regulation of flowering and fruit set.

Auxins promote fruit initiation, gibberellins support ovary growth, cytokinins enhance cell division, while ethylene and abscisic acid regulate abscission and stress-mediated inhibition (Taiz *et al.*, 2015) and (Davies, 2010).

Genetic and Molecular Mechanisms Governing Flowering and Fruit Set

Strong genetic and molecular controls govern the regulation of blooming and fruit set, including a complex network of genes, transcription factors, and signaling pathways that combine environmental and endogenous developmental inputs. Understanding the genetic underpinnings of floral induction, floral organ development, and fruit initiation in horticulture crops has been substantially improved by developments in molecular biology and genomics. Fruit set, yield stability, and flowering time manipulation have all benefited from these discoveries.

Genetic Control of Floral Induction and Flowering Time

The photoperiod, vernalization, autonomous, and gibberellin pathways are among the conserved flowering-time routes that largely control floral induction. The FLOWERING LOCUS T (FT) gene, which produces florigen, a mobile floral signal, is essential to several pathways. In order to activate floral meristem identity genes like LEAFY (LFY) and APETALA1 (AP1), FT is produced in leaves under

inductive circumstances and transferred to the shoot apical meristem, where it interacts with FD (Turck *et al.*, 2008). Numerous fruit and vegetable crops are among the numerous plant species that share this molecular structure. The CONSTANS (CO) gene, which relays light and circadian clock signals to regulate FT expression, is involved in photoperiodic regulation of flowering. While different regulatory mechanisms function in short-day plants, CO activates FT in long-day plants under favorable photoperiods (Andrés and Coupland, 2012). Homologs of FT and associated genes are essential for alternative bearing patterns, dormancy release, and seasonal blooming behavior in perennial fruit trees.

Molecular Regulation of Floral Meristem Identity and Organ Development

Following floral induction, a group of transcription factors that regulate the development of floral organs specify the identity of the floral meristem. The identity of sepals, petals, stamens, and carpels is determined by combinations of A-, B-, and C-class genes, according to the traditional ABC model of flower development (Causier *et al.*, 2010). These genes produce MADS-box transcription factors, which control the expression of downstream genes involved in fertility and organ differentiation. Reduced fertility, poor fruit set, and aberrant flower shape are frequently caused by mutations or changed expression of floral identity genes. Such genetic changes can have major agronomic effects on horticulture crops, including seed development, fruit size, and form. Precise control of floral organ identity genes is necessary for effective fertilization and ovary development, according to molecular research in tomatoes, apples, and grapes (Irish, 2017).

Genetic Control of Fruit Set and Flower-to-Fruit Transition

After pollination and fertilization, fruit set is a crucial developmental shift regulated by changes in gene expression. During fruit initiation, genes related to hormone production, signaling, and response pathways are quickly activated. Early fruit growth results from transcriptional reprogramming of ovarian tissues, which permits cell division, expansion, and differentiation (Vriezen *et al.*, 2008). In certain crops, fertilization-dependent signals are circumvented by genetic alterations that result in parthenocarpic fruit formation. Important regulators between blooming and fruit set have been found in recent research, including genes related to sugar transport, auxin and gibberellin signaling, and cell cycle regulation. The hormonal and metabolic signals necessary for ovarian development

and fruit retention are coordinated by these genes. Genetic control of fruit set in perennial fruit crops also interacts with resource availability and flowering intensity.

Advances in Genomics and Gene Editing

The study of flowering and fruit set control has been transformed by the development of high-throughput sequencing, transcriptomics, and genome editing tools. Targeted modification of flowering genes to change blooming time, increase fruit set, and improve stress tolerance has been made possible by CRISPR/Cas-based gene editing (Zsöñ *et al.*, 2018). These molecular tools have great potential for creating horticultural crops that are more tolerant to climate change and have higher rates of reproduction. Overall, a complex network of conserved and crop-specific genes is involved in the genetic and molecular control of flowering and fruit set. Molecular breeding and biotechnological treatments targeted at improving reproductive development and yield performance are made possible by an understanding of these systems.

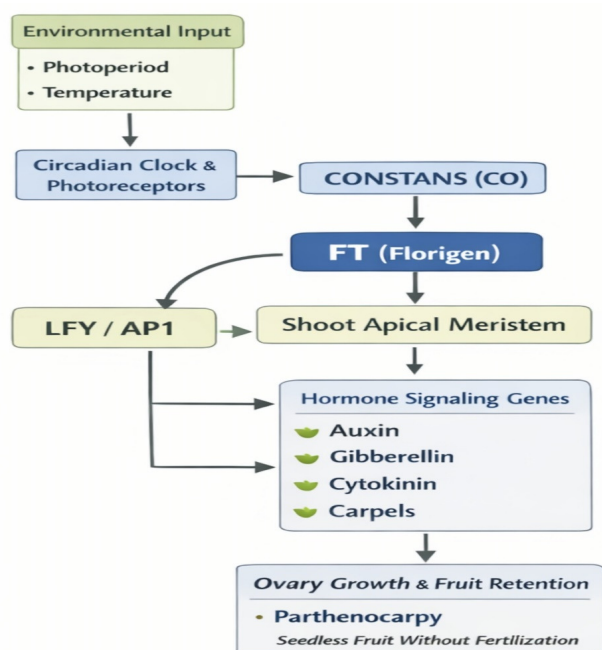


Fig. 2 : Genetic pathways regulating flowering and fruit set. The diagram summarizes environmental cues, photoperiodic regulation via CONSTANS and FT (florigen), floral meristem identity genes, and hormone-mediated ovary growth leading to fruit retention and parthenocarpy. (Andrés and Coupland, 2012); (Turck *et al.*, 2008)

Environmental Influences on Flowering and Fruit Set

Environmental factors control physiological, biochemical, and molecular processes related to

reproductive development, which has a significant impact on flowering and fruit set. In horticulture crops, the capacity of the plant to sense and react to environmental signals like light, temperature, moisture, and atmospheric conditions is just as important as genetic potential for successful flowering and fruit production. Significant yield losses at delicate reproductive phases can be caused by even brief environmental changes.

Influence of Light Intensity and Radiation

Flower initiation and development are influenced by photosynthesis and assimilate production, which are directly impacted by light intensity and solar radiation. The creation of floral buds and reproductive growth depend on the buildup of carbohydrates, which is enhanced by adequate light availability. In many vegetable and fruit crops, low light circumstances brought on by clouds, shade, or thick canopies promote floral abscission and decrease bloom quantity (Poorter *et al.*, 2019). Insufficient light in ornamental crops has a negative impact on bloom size, color intensity, and market quality in addition to delaying blossoming.

Flowering responses are also influenced by the spectral content of light. The ratios of red to far-red light affect phytochrome-mediated signaling pathways, which control floral design and flowering induction. Under protected culture, changes in light quality frequently need to be carefully managed to prevent flowering synchrony disturbances.

Temperature Extremes and Thermal Stress

One of the most important environmental elements controlling fruit set and blooming phenology is temperature. Pollen viability, stigma receptivity, pollen tube growth, and floral organ development all depend on ideal temperature ranges. Poor fruit set can result from pollen sterility, ovule degeneration, and fertilization failure caused by exposure to supra-optimal temperatures during flowering (Jagadish *et al.*, 2016). During anthesis, heat stress is especially harmful to crops like tomatoes, peppers, and fruit trees. By delaying blooming, hindering pollen germination, and decreasing fertilization success, low temperature stress can also interfere with reproductive development. In a number of tropical and subtropical fruit crops cultivated in marginal conditions, chilling harm during reproductive stages has been shown (Camejo *et al.*, 2005).

Water Availability and Atmospheric Stress

Water availability affects cell turgor, nutrient transport, and hormonal balance, all of which have a significant impact on flowering and fruit development.

Reduced flower output, increased bloom drop, and poor fruit preservation are frequently the outcomes of a water deficiency during floral bud development or anthesis. Drought stress limits the amount of assimilate that reaches reproductive organs by changing stomatal conductance and decreasing photosynthetic activity (Blum, 2011). Apart from soil moisture, meteorological elements like relative humidity and vapor pressure deficit are significant. While extremely high humidity might hinder pollen distribution and stigma receptivity, low humidity conditions hasten floral desiccation and decrease pollen viability. Under protected agricultural methods, these atmospheric stressors are very important.

Elevated CO₂ and Climate Variability

In the process changing plant growth patterns, photosynthesis, and carbon allocation, rising atmospheric carbon dioxide concentrations affect flowering and fruit set. While elevated CO₂ frequently promotes vegetative growth, its effects on reproductive development vary depending on the crop. Increased vegetative development can occasionally result in decreased reproductive allocation and delayed blooming (Ainsworth and Rogers, 2007). Reproductive stability is severely hampered by climate variability, which is defined by erratic temperature swings, erratic rainfall, and harsh weather. Extreme weather conditions like heat waves or unseasonal frosts can cause extensive floral damage, while changes in flowering time might interfere with pollinator synchronization. The sustainability and productivity of horticultural systems are at risk due to these changes, especially in areas that are vulnerable to climate change (Rosenzweig *et al.*, 2014).

In general, light, temperature, water, and air variables interact intricately to affect blooming and fruit development. Developing adaptive crop management techniques, enhancing stress tolerance, and guaranteeing steady reproductive performance under shifting environmental conditions all depend on an understanding of these interconnections.

Pollination, Fertilization, and Fruit Set Dynamics

Pollination and fertilization are pivotal biological processes that bridge flowering and fruit set, directly determining reproductive success and yield in horticultural crops. Pollination involves the transfer of viable pollen grains from anthers to the stigma, while fertilization entails the fusion of male and female gametes leading to seed and fruit development. The efficiency of these processes is governed by floral biology, pollination mechanisms, pollen pistil

interactions, and post-fertilization physiological responses.

Pollination Mechanisms and Pollen Viability

Fruit, vegetable, and flower crops all use different pollination techniques, such as self-pollination, cross-pollination, or a mix of the two. Insect pollinators, especially bees, are crucial for the efficient transmission of pollen in many fruit crops, including apple, almond, and pear, which are mostly cross-pollinated (Free, 1993). However, under some circumstances, pollinators may still increase fruit set in crops like tomatoes and peas, which are mostly self-pollinating.

A crucial factor in the success of pollination is pollen viability. In order to create a pollen tube that may reach the ovule, viable pollen must germinate on the stigma. Poor fruit set results from environmental challenges such high temperatures, dryness, and nutrient shortages that drastically lower pollen viability and germination capability (De Storme and Geelen, 2014). Pollen performance is sometimes hampered by inadequate humidity and temperature regimes in sheltered horticulture, requiring artificial pollination or pollinator control.

Pollen–Pistil Interaction and Fertilization

Pollen and pistil tissues engage in intricate biochemical and molecular interactions after pollination. While the style directs pollen tube development toward the ovary using signaling molecules and gradients of calcium ions and sugars, the stigma supplies the nutrients and water needed for pollen germination (Hiscock and Allen, 2008). Pollen tube development and ovule receptivity must precisely coincide for fertilization to be successful.

Self-incompatibility in many fruit trees is an example of an incompatibility system that prevents self-fertilization and fosters genetic variety. However, if there are insufficient pollinators or suitable pollen sources, these processes may restrict fruit set. Fruit growth and seed generation begin when fertilization sets off a series of hormonal and metabolic changes in the ovary (Dresselhaus *et al.*, 2016).

Fruit Set and Early Fruit Development

Fruit set, which is characterized by fast cell division and growth, is the process by which a fertilized ovary develops into a fruit. This stage is extremely susceptible to both external environmental factors and internal hormone cues. In order to ensure fruit retention, auxins, gibberellins, and cytokinins produced in growing seeds promote ovary expansion and inhibit abscission (Ozga *et al.*, 2002). Flower drop

is frequently the result of inadequate hormonal communication following fertilization failure. Certain crops generate parthenocarpic fruit without fertilization, either spontaneously or by genetic or hormonal manipulation. Although parthenocarpy enhances fruit set in challenging circumstances, depending on the crop species, it may affect fruit size, shape, and quality.

Causes of Poor Fruit Set and Flower Drop

Insufficient pollination, insufficient pollen viability, unsuccessful fertilization, and hormonal instability are frequently linked to poor fruit set. Pollinator activity and pollen-pistil interactions are disrupted during blooming by environmental disturbances like heat waves or heavy rains. Furthermore, excessive vegetative growth and competition for carbohydrates might increase abscission rates by decreasing assimilate availability to growing flowers and immature fruits (Stephenson, 1981). Therefore, increasing fruit set efficiency requires an understanding of pollination biology and fertilization dynamics. Enhancing reproductive success in horticulture systems requires strategies including pollinator conservation, artificial pollination, suitable cultivar selection, and optimum environmental management.

Crop-Specific Regulation and Management Strategies in Fruits, Vegetables, and Flowers

In order to achieve high output and quality in horticulture crops, blooming and fruit set must be well regulated. To maximize reproductive success, crop-specific methods combine environmental, genetic, hormonal, and physiological control techniques. Due to variations in blooming biology, pollination needs, and growth habits, these methods change for fruits, vegetables, and decorative flowers.

Fruit Crops

Environmental factors, floral induction timing, and alternate bearing all affect blooming and fruit set in fruit crops including apples, mangos, citrus, and grapes. Pruning, canopy control, and nutrient scheduling are examples of cultural techniques that are essential for preserving source-sink balance and encouraging consistent blooming (Wünsche and Lakso, 2000). Pruning improves light penetration and promotes the production of flower buds by reducing excessive vegetative growth. Fruit set and blooming are frequently controlled by hormonal manipulation. In apple and citrus, auxins and cytokinins are employed to increase fruit retention and decrease abscission, whereas gibberellin inhibitors are used to decrease vegetative dominance and promote flowering (Khan *et*

al., 2014). By lessening competition among growing fruits, fruit thinning either chemically or manually improves fruit size and quality. For cross-pollinated plants, controlling pollination is essential. Fruit set in apple and pear orchards is greatly increased by planting suitable cultivars and providing sufficient pollinator activity (Free, 1993). Exogenous hormone treatments can circumvent pollination requirements for parthenocarpic types, allowing for reliable fruit production under challenging circumstances.

Vegetable Crops

Vegetable crops, such as tomato, capsicum, cucumber, and zucchini, exhibit a variety of blooming habits, ranging from insect-pollinated species to self-pollinating ones. In greenhouse or protected horticulture, environmental management is very crucial. Maintaining ideal levels of light, humidity, and temperature increases pollen fertilization and viability, which improves fruit set (Demers *et al.*, 1998). Effective nutrition control is essential to successful reproduction. Fertilization with balanced amounts of potassium, phosphorus, and nitrogen guarantees sufficient vegetative development without sacrificing blooming. Pollen generation, pollen tube expansion, and ovule fertilization all depend on micronutrients including calcium, zinc, and boron (Brown *et al.*, 2002). To achieve efficient pollen transmission, crops like greenhouse tomatoes frequently require artificial pollination or the introduction of pollinators. Under less than ideal circumstances, growth regulators such gibberellins, auxins, and cytokinins are used to promote parthenocarpic fruit set and improve flower retention (Serrani *et al.*, 2007).

Ornamental Flower Crops

Flowering season, aesthetics, and market demand are all strongly related to flowering control in ornamental flowers. In order to stimulate blooming at desirable periods in crops like chrysanthemum, poinsettia, and gerbera, photoperiod modification is a crucial technique (Thomas and Vince-Prue, 1997). Flowering can be accelerated or delayed by controlling the temperature with heating or cooling devices. Gibberellins and cytokinins in particular are used in hormonal therapies to increase bloom size, stem elongation, and lifespan. Flower color, petal count, and overall quality are all impacted by nutrition management, particularly micronutrients (Kinet and Peet, 1997). Maintaining floral turgor and preventing flower drop are achieved by controlled watering and substrate management. To create cultivars with better blooming uniformity, longer vase life, and stress tolerance, breeding and molecular techniques are being

applied more and more. Under controlled conditions, blooming period and floral organ development may be regulated by genetic modification of flowering genes such as *FT*, *LFY*, and *MADS-box* transcription factors (Andrés and Coupland, 2012).

Integrated Management Approaches

Optimizing reproductive success requires integrated approaches that incorporate pollination enhancement, genetic selection, nutrition and hormone modulation, and environmental management. Flowering success in field crops is improved by modifying sowing or transplanting dates to coincide with favorable climatic conditions. Pruning and the use of growth regulators can promote fruit set and synchronize blooming. Precise regulation of light, temperature, humidity, and CO₂ levels optimizes flower quality and reproductive effectiveness in protected culture (Poorter *et al.*, 2019). Using these crop-specific techniques guarantees increased yields, better fruit and blossom quality, and resistance to environmental stress. Furthermore, focused treatments are made possible by a knowledge of the physiological, hormonal, and molecular mechanisms driving flowering and fruit development, which increases the predictability and sustainability of horticultural output.

Conclusion

The most important and yield-determining stages of the life cycle of horticultural crops, which include fruits, vegetables, and decorative plants, are flowering and fruit set. A highly coordinated network of physiological, biochemical, hormonal, genetic, and environmental factors controls the complete completion of these phases. The processes controlling blooming and fruit set have been thoroughly summarized in this paper, emphasizing their intricacy and crucial importance in maintaining horticulture systems' production, quality, and economic viability.

A well-controlled process of floral induction, initiation, and differentiation occurs during the shift from vegetative to reproductive development. The availability and distribution of carbohydrates, mineral nutrition, and metabolic activity all have a significant impact on these developmental processes and ultimately decide a plant's capacity to blossom. In perennial fruit crops, where competition between vegetative growth, developing fruits, and floral buds frequently results in erratic bearing and yield instability, the source–sink connection becomes crucial. Designing successful cultural and dietary management methods starts with an understanding of these physiological limitations. Plant hormones are essential for regulating fruit set and blooming. Through

intricate cross-talk mechanisms, auxins, gibberellins, cytokinins, ethylene, and abscisic acid control ovary growth, fruit retention, floral development, and abscission. Whether flowers effectively develop into fruits or experience an early drop depends on the balance between growth-promoting and inhibitory hormones. Developments in hormonal physiology have made it possible to promote fruit set under unfavorable climatic conditions through useful treatments like the use of plant growth regulators and parthenocarp induction. By identifying important flowering genes and signaling pathways, the molecular control of flowering and fruit set has been clarified. In order to control blooming time, floral organ identity, and the transition from flower to fruit, conserved regulators including blooming *LOCUS T*, *CONSTANS*, *LEAFY*, and *MADS-box* transcription factors combine external inputs with internal developmental signals. The development of cultivars with better flowering uniformity, increased fruit set, and increased resistance to abiotic stressors is now possible thanks to recent advancements in genomics and genome-editing technology.

In horticultural crops, environmental factors continue to be a significant predictor of reproductive success. Flowering phenology, pollen viability, fertilization, and early fruit development are all significantly impacted by photoperiod, temperature, water availability, and meteorological conditions. Flowering synchronization and fruit set stability are severely hampered by the growing unpredictability brought on by climate change, which manifests as increased temperatures, changed rainfall patterns, and extreme weather events. These difficulties highlight how urgent it is to create climate-resilient cultivars, protected farming methods, and adaptive management techniques. Successful pollen transport and gamete fusion initiate hormonal and metabolic changes necessary for fruit development, making pollination and fertilization the crucial connection between blooming and fruit set. The necessity for integrated pollination management and conservation measures is further highlighted by declining pollinator populations and reproductive failures brought on by environmental stress.

In summary, reproductive efficiency is determined by the dynamic interaction of internal and external variables that control flowering physiology and fruit set regulation. The advancement of sustainable horticulture production requires a comprehensive understanding of these processes. Future studies should concentrate on systems-level strategies that integrate agronomy, physiology, and molecular biology to

improve yield stability and solve climate-related issues. In a world that is changing quickly, such all-encompassing approaches will be essential to guaranteeing food security, enhancing crop quality, and maintaining the financial sustainability of horticulture businesses.

References

- Ainsworth, E. A., & Rogers, A. (2007). The response of photosynthesis and stomatal conductance to rising CO₂: Mechanisms and environmental interactions. *Plant, Cell & Environment*, 30(3), 258–270.
- Andrés, F., & Coupland, G. (2012). The genetic basis of flowering responses to seasonal cues. *Nature Reviews Genetics*, 13(9), 627–639.
- Bangerth, F. (2000). Abscission and thinning of young fruit and their regulation by plant hormones and bioregulators. *Plant Growth Regulation*, 31(1–2), 43–59.
- Bernier, G., & Périlleux, C. (2005). A physiological overview of the genetics of flowering time control. *Plant Biotechnology Journal*, 3(1), 3–16.
- Bleecker, A. B., & Kende, H. (2000). Ethylene: A gaseous signal molecule in plants. *Annual Review of Cell and Developmental Biology*, 16, 1–18.
- Blum, A. (2011). *Plant breeding for water-limited environments*. Springer.
- Brown, P. H., Bellaloui, N., Wimmer, M. A., Bassil, E. S., Ruiz, J., Hu, H., Pfeiffer, H., Dannel, F., & Römhild, V. (2002). Boron in plant biology. *Plant Biology*, 4(2), 205–223.
- Camejo, D., Rodríguez, P., Morales, M. A., Dell'Amico, J. M., Torrecillas, A., & Alarcón, J. J. (2005). High temperature effects on photosynthetic activity of two tomato cultivars. *Journal of Plant Physiology*, 162(3), 281–289.
- Causier, B., Schwarz-Sommer, Z., & Davies, B. (2010). Floral organ identity: 20 years of ABCs. *Seminars in Cell & Developmental Biology*, 21(1), 73–79.
- Coen, E. S., & Meyerowitz, E. M. (1991). The war of the whorls: Genetic interactions controlling flower development. *Nature*, 353(6339), 31–37.
- Davies, P. J. (Ed.). (2010). *Plant hormones: Biosynthesis, signal transduction, action!* (3rd ed.). Springer.
- De Storme, N., & Geelen, D. (2014). The impact of environmental stress on male reproductive development in plants: Biological processes and molecular mechanisms. *Plant, Cell & Environment*, 37(1), 1–18.
- Demers, D. A., Dorais, M., Wien, C. H., & Gosselin, A. (1998). Effects of supplemental light duration on greenhouse tomato (*Lycopersicon esculentum* Mill.) plants and fruit yields. *Scientia Horticulturae*, 74(4), 295–306.
- Depuydt, S., & Hardtke, C. S. (2011). Hormone signalling crosstalk in plant growth regulation. *Current Biology*, 21, R365–R373.
- Dresselhaus, T., Sprunck, S., & Wessel, G. M. (2016). Fertilization mechanisms in flowering plants. *Current Biology*, 26, R125–R139.
- Free, J. B. (1993). *Insect pollination of crops* (2nd ed.). Academic Press.
- Goldschmidt, E. E. (2013). The carbohydrate economy of fruiting trees. *Horticultural Reviews*, 41, 1–35.
- Hanke, M. V., Flachowsky, H., Peil, A., & Hättasch, C. (2007). No flower no fruit: Genetic potentials to trigger flowering in fruit trees. *Genes, Genomes and Genomics*, 1, 1–20.
- Hedhly, A., Hormaza, J. I., & Herrero, M. (2009). Global warming and sexual plant reproduction. *Trends in Plant Science*, 14(1), 30–36.
- Hiscock, S. J., & Allen, A. M. (2008). Diverse cell signalling pathways regulate pollen–stigma interactions. *Journal of Experimental Botany*, 59(10), 2585–2594.
- IPCC. (2022). *Climate change 2022: Impacts, adaptation and vulnerability*. Contribution of Working Group II to the Sixth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (H.-O. Pörtner et al., Eds.). Cambridge University Press.
- Irish, V. F. (2017). The ABC model of floral development. *Current Biology*, 27(17), R887–R890.
- Jackson, M. B. (2003). Ethylene in plant responses to stress. In S. Hayat & A. Ahmad (Eds.), *Ethylene in plant biology* (pp. 291–310). Academic Press.
- Jagadish, S. V. K., Way, D. A., & Sharkey, T. D. (2021). Plant heat stress: Concepts directing future research. *Plant, Cell & Environment*, 44(7), 1992–2005.
- Kaufmann, K., Wellmer, F., & Muiño, J. M. (2010). Diversity of MADS-box transcription factors and their role in flower development. *The Plant Journal*, 61(1), 102–115.
- Khan, W., Prithiviraj, B., & Smith, D. L. (2014). Regulation of flower and fruit development by plant growth regulators in horticultural crops. *Plant Growth Regulation*, 72(1), 1–14.
- Kinet, J. M., & Peet, M. M. (1997). Tomato. In H. C. Wien (Ed.), *The physiology of vegetable crops* (pp. 207–258). CAB International.
- Marschner, P. (Ed.). (2012). *Marschner's mineral nutrition of higher plants* (3rd ed.). Academic Press.
- Mutasa-Göttgens, E., & Hedden, P. (2009). Gibberellin as a factor in floral regulatory networks. *Journal of Experimental Botany*, 60(7), 1979–1989.
- Ozga, J. A., Yu, J., & Reinecke, D. M. (2002). Pollination-, fertilization-, and hormone-related changes in plant fruit development. *Journal of Plant Growth Regulation*, 21(1), 1–17.
- Pandolfini, T., Molesini, B., & Spena, A. (2007). Molecular dissection of the role of auxin in fruit initiation. *Trends in Plant Science*, 12(7), 327–329.
- Poorter, H., Fiorani, F., Stitt, M., Schurr, U., Finck, A., Gibon, Y., Usadel, B., Munns, R., Atkin, O. K., Tardieu, F., & Pons, T. L. (2019). The art of growing plants for experimental purposes: A practical guide for the plant biologist. *Journal of Experimental Botany*, 70(10), 2521–2543.
- Roitsch, T., & González, M. C. (2004). Function and regulation of plant invertases: Sweet sensations. *Trends in Plant Science*, 9(12), 606–613.
- Rosenzweig, C., Elliott, J., Deryng, D., Ruane, A. C., Müller, C., Arneth, A., Boote, K. J., Folberth, C., Glotter, M., Khabarov, N., & Neumann, K. (2014). Assessing agricultural risks of climate change in the 21st century in a global spatially explicit multi-model ensemble. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 111(9), 3268–3273.
- Sakakibara, H. (2006). Cytokinins: Activity, biosynthesis, and translocation. *Annual Review of Plant Biology*, 57, 431–449.

- Sedgley, M., & Griffin, A. R. (1989). *Sexual reproduction of tree crops*. Academic Press.
- Shinozaki, K., & Yamaguchi-Shinozaki, K. (2007). Gene networks involved in drought stress response and tolerance. *Journal of Experimental Botany*, 58(2), 221–227.
- Srivastava, A., & Handa, A. K. (2005). Hormonal regulation of tomato fruit development: A molecular perspective. *Plant Growth Regulation*, 46(1), 1–15.
- Stephenson, A. G. (1981). Flower and fruit abortion: Proximate causes and ultimate functions. *Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics*, 12(1), 253–279.
- Taiz, L., Zeiger, E., Møller, I. M., & Murphy, A. (2015). *Plant physiology and development* (6th ed.). Sinauer Associates.
- Thomas, B., & Vince-Prue, D. (1997). *Photoperiodism in plants* (2nd ed.). Academic Press.
- Turck, F., Fornara, F., & Coupland, G. (2008). Regulation and identity of florigen: FLOWERING LOCUS T moves center stage. *Annual Review of Plant Biology*, 59, 573–594.
- Vriezen, W. H., Feron, R., Maretto, F., Keijman, J., & Mariani, C. (2008). Changes in tomato ovary transcriptome demonstrate the involvement of hormone signalling in fruit set. *New Phytologist*, 177(1), 60–76.
- Wilkie, J. D., Sedgley, M., & Olesen, T. (2008). Regulation of floral initiation in horticultural trees. *Journal of Experimental Botany*, 59(12), 3215–3228.
- Wünsche, J. N., & Lakso, A. N. (2000). The apple tree canopy: Progress in understanding development and function. *HortScience*, 35(5), 710–715.
- Zsögön, A., Čermák, T., Naves, E. R., Notini, M. M., Edel, K. H., Weinl, S., Freschi, L., Voytas, D. F., & Peres, L. E. P. (2018). De novo domestication of wild tomato using genome editing. *Nature Biotechnology*, 36(12), 1211–1216.